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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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AN AUSPICIOUS COMMITMENT TO THE 6-4-4 PLAN

RESPONSE to a special inquiry sent to Andrew P. Hill, superintendent of the Stockton (California) Unified School District, finds that the Board of Education there in March, 1944, adopted as the future organization of its system the "K-6-4-4 plan," which, as probably every reader knows, houses in successive units the six-year elementary school (including the kindergarten), the four-year high school or junior high school, and the four-year junior college. The motion as passed reads that the actual change should occur as the board is able to make new building facilities available. In his communication Superintendent Hill says that, according to present plans, it is hoped to be well on the way to the change-over by February, 1947.

While commitments to this new organization always involve noteworthy aspects, two in this situation merit special remark. One of these

concerns the provisions for housing the two-year junior college that has been a part of the 8-4-2 arrangement on which the system has been operating. The Stockton Junior College has, for many years, been housed on a rental basis in the plant of the College of the Pacific, a private institution of estimable standing that carries its own program through the Master's degree. The arrangement has involved, also, some co-operative use of faculty. These contractual and co-operative relationships of the junior college and of the College of the Pacific are to be continued and even extended.

The second unusual aspect is the fact that an earlier survey made by an agency outside the system in 1938 had recommended for it the K-6-3-3-2 organization—a recommendation that was set aside by the new commitment.

The extent and nature of rehousing called for by reorganization are suggested by paraphrase of portions of Dr. Hill's communication. As of the

date of writing, the system has twenty-two elementary schools, three high schools, one old elementary school housing adult and vocational classes, and one junior college housed in rented quarters. A new elementary school is needed in the northwest sector of the city. This is a total of twenty-eight school plants. Under the K-6-4-4 plan, the number of elementary schools will be cut from twenty-two to eighteen, the number of high schools (in the reorganization housing Grades VII-X) will be increased to four, and there will be one four-year junior college with a "downtown" branch. This will be a total of twenty-four school plants. By the date of Dr. Hill's letter, the Board of Education had ordered plans and specifications drawn for new elementary schools and additions to elementary schools involving forty-one rooms; new high schools and additions involving forty-seven rooms; and space for the junior college equivalent to forty-seven rooms, laboratories, and shops. Thus the total of all rooms to be added by these plans is 135. The additional facilities for the Stockton Junior College are to be provided on a site of forty-four acres adjacent to that of the College of the Pacific, and some of these facilities are to be used jointly by these two institutions, just as now the facilities of the College of the Pacific are so used. The projected outlay for this postwar building program for the Stockton schools is \$5,100,000.

Evidence is at hand, in a publication of the Stockton Junior College

projecting a "Basic Pattern for the Future," that the reorganization being made is to be far from a mere rehousing and regrouping of grades. In this publication one notes that the same counter of credit—the "credit hour"—is to be used throughout the four-year junior college and the total curriculum of the student will comprehend 120 units. The four-year program of the individual student will include sixty-six units of "general education," forty-two units of "occupational education" (made up of thirty-six units in vocational or upper-division prerequisite courses and six units of work experience), and twelve units of "avocational education." Objectives of the junior college have been determined and head toward "Fundamentals," "Health," "Aesthetic development," "Personal adjustment," "Social adjustment," "Economic competency," and "Use of leisure time," and the elements of the program to achieve the objectives have been predetermined.

Even a brief item on this auspicious commitment to reorganization on the 6-4-4 plan should not neglect at least mention of the long process of study and education that has been involved in preparation for it. This process yielded the conclusions of out-of-dateness of the 8-4-2 plan for Stockton, the unsuitability of the 6-3-3-2 arrangement recommended by the outside surveyor, and the preferability of the 6-4-4 arrangement incorporating continuous and expanded co-operation with the College of the Pa-

cific. It involved study of these different plans and their advantages and disadvantages by many groups in the community, among them, school board, teachers, organizations of parents, and service organizations.

RISING JUNIOR-COLLEGE ENROLMENTS

INFORMATION in a late issue of the *Washington Newsletter* of the American Association of Junior Colleges compiled by Mrs. Winifred R. Long, acting executive secretary of the Association, makes it clear that junior-college enrolments have already begun to experience their post-war increase. Reports received by her from 486 institutions—85 per cent of all junior colleges in the country—show increments of enrolment this autumn in 369 colleges, or fully three-fourths of all. No change in enrolment was indicated for 82 units and a decline in enrolment by only 35.

Further analysis by Mrs. Long finds that the median percentage of change for coeducational junior colleges is an increase of 20 per cent. Men's institutions seem to be holding their own notwithstanding continuance of the draft. Women's institutions have experienced a median increase of 5 per cent. Mrs. Long's explanation of the smaller increase for junior colleges enrolling women only is that these had experienced large increments during wartime and were unable to provide additional housing for more than the 5 per cent median increase.

The proportion of men in coeducational institutions shows some increase. The median percentage in Mrs. Long's figures stood at 31—about one man in every three students. Last year's median percentage was 26. The distributions disclose a tendency to somewhat higher percentages in public than in private junior colleges. Numerous veterans entered the junior colleges at the beginning of the semester, accounting for part of the increase in the proportions of men. As in other institutions, late registration was adding rapidly to these proportions.

The opinion may be ventured that this is only a beginning of an acceleration of growth over a period of years in junior-college enrolments that will exceed any previous rate in this rapidly growing institution. Indications are that the rise will be owing not only to growth of existing junior colleges, but just as much or more to the establishment of new units. In all probability we shall see an approach to the degree of universalization of this level of education not unlike that enjoyed by the high-school level a quarter-century ago.

CHILD LABOR DURING AND AFTER THE WAR

EVERYONE knows that, during the acute labor shortage of the war period, there was greatly increased employment of minors. Some of this increase was legal and permitted by relaxation of requirements having

some justification in the needs of the time. Some of it was both illegal and unjustifiable. The tide of employment of minors has been rapidly receding in recent months and will doubtless continue to do so, although vigilance will be necessary to see that in some quarters employers do not endeavor to perpetuate the wartime relaxation.

A recent release of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor indicates that wartime amendments to the child-labor regulations issued under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 have been revoked. Child Labor Regulation Number 3 controlling the employment of fourteen- and fifteen-year old children has been restored to its pre-war standards for all industries. Hazardous Occupations Order Number 5 regarding operation of power-driven machines will no longer contain the emergency exemption under which sixteen- and seventeen-year-old minors were temporarily permitted to work on a few of the less hazardous of these machines. Under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the minimum age for most employment in establishments subject to the act is sixteen years, with an eighteen-year minimum for specific hazardous occupations, and a fourteen-year minimum for certain work defined as not harmful.

A great increase in industrial injuries to minors is reported by Miriam Noll, specialist in accident statistics, Industrial Division of the Children's Bureau, in a recent issue of *The Child*, as one of the striking features of the

war period. It is her further assertion that this, in part, reflects "the tremendous rise in youth employment, both legal and illegal, that has occurred, with the accompanying increase in exposure of boys and girls to accident and health hazards on the job."

Of late years there has been much advocacy of "work experience" for youth. A great deal can be said for giving young people firsthand contact with the work of the world. However, the supervised experience contemplated for these efforts to have youth share in work activities is a far cry from the unsupervised exploitation almost certain to accompany the relaxation of regulations and controls that society has won over the years, and we should brook no relinquishment of controls in the belief that satisfactory work experience is thereby being provided. The physical damage through accidents is only a token of the harm to youth and society that can come from such exploitation, since the harm done to minds and attitudes will far outreach in seriousness even the bodily injuries.

For persons who wish to acquaint themselves with what the different states have provided in the way of laws and regulations in this area, there comes conveniently to hand a recent publication of the United States Office of Education. It is Bulletin Number 1, 1945, and is entitled *School Census, Compulsory Education, Child Labor: State Laws and Regulations*. Copies of this 200-page analysis

may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., for thirty cents.

THE JUNIOR CITY OF SAN FRANCISCO

AT HAND is Number 1 of Volume I of the *San Francisco Junior City News* dated November 2, 1945. Perusal of this four-page, five-column issue yields the origin, the purposes, the organization, the activities in their present state of development, and something of the promise of this movement among the youth of San Francisco.

The idea for the founding of a Junior City in the War Housing Area of Hunter's Point (San Francisco) was suggested in July, 1944, by Miss Dorothy Heller, chief of the Community Services Division of San Francisco's Housing Authority. Sponsorship was assumed by the Housing Authority in December, 1944. In April, 1945, a director, Burt M. Kebric, was employed. Further steps since June have included (1) setting up the Junior City Hall; (2) organization by a "Founders' Committee," consisting of fifty-seven boys and fifty girls, of nine committees on art, business, charter, maintenance, newspaper, etc.; (3) adoption of the name "San Francisco Junior City"; and (4) approval of the charter by the founders and the Housing Authority. In the meantime, election, membership, and installation committees began operation; Roger D. Lapham, mayor of the City and County of San Francisco, at

a press conference, made the first public announcement about the opening of San Francisco Junior City; and first honorary citizenship was conferred on him.

Among organizations reported to have helped in founding Junior City are the national government, through President Truman and others; the state government, through Governor Warren; American Junior Red Cross; American Legion; American Red Cross; Boy Scouts of America; California Congress of Parents and Teachers; Camp Fire Girls; California Council of Churches; California Youth Authority; San Francisco Department of Education; San Francisco Police Department; and many others.

The Junior City Hall which has been provided consists of sixteen rooms housing the offices of the various departments. The rooms are "beautifully furnished with light oak easy chairs, office desks, tables, chairs, bookcases, and magazine racks. Office files, bulletin boards, framed photographs, and paintings complete the equipment."

Election day in Junior City was announced for November 15. Numerous candidates for offices of mayor, city attorney, judges, supervisors, and treasurer announced the policies they would pursue, if elected. Voting was done at the Junior City Hall on a voting machine supplied by Cameron King, registrar of voters for San Francisco.

This issue of *Junior City News* reproduces at length the charter of

Junior City adopted at the first election of officers. This charter states the purpose of Junior City to be "to give the young people of San Francisco, California, the opportunity to practice good American citizenship through their own local self-government." It indicates the rights of citizenship, the elective and appointive officers, and the powers and duties of these officers.

Following are two paragraphs quoted from the single editorial in *Junior City News*.

This newspaper is only one of the many opportunities which San Francisco Junior City offers to its citizens. Art, business, health, law, library, employment, recreation, and welfare are some of the other opportunities provided which bear out our slogan, "An Activity for Each Citizen." . . .

San Francisco Junior City is really ours as we who have planned it have found out. It gives us the chance to demonstrate to the world that we can contribute to the welfare of our community. Here, we can learn to think for ourselves, we can practice good government, and we can use our spare time to good advantage. Here, also, we can make new friends, and we can co-operate and work with others for the good of all.

"Citizens, this is our golden opportunity; let's make the most of it."

The type of organization represented in this movement in San Francisco is deserving of much more than the usual indulgent smile from sophisticated adults, who may be disposed to regard it as just another kind of inconsequential play. The movement has such potentialities for growth of youth in citizenship that its spread in San Francisco and communities every-

where should have vigorous and discerning encouragement. Here is a method of capitalizing the aspiration and idealism of the younger generation to the end that they may grow in the sense of civic responsibility and in leadership and, at the same time, share in constructive aspects of community life. Positive steps of this kind are vastly to be preferred to repressive measures designed to curb what many are prone to dub as "the delinquent tendencies of modern youth."

In further comment on initiation of this promising organization in San Francisco and its extension elsewhere, we would urge avoidance of an all-too-frequent pitfall in youth organizations, when they take on the *form* only of the adult analogues. This is the danger of setting them up with the semblance of the pattern of adult organizations without an essential accompanying program of absorbing and vital activities. The activities must be real and not mere play imitations of adult concerns. Certain elements of Junior City as portrayed in *Junior City News* encourage the belief that it comprehends both form and substance that will appeal to youth and achieve the purpose in establishing this juvenile municipality.

TOWARD AN EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS

FROM the Division of Public Liaison of the Department of State in Washington have come reports of a conference, opened in London on Novem-

ber 1, 1945, on the Educational and Cultural Organization of the United Nations, earlier steps toward which have been described in these pages. Representatives of thirty-eight countries were present. At the opening session it was decided that the meetings of the conference and of its commissions and committees should be public, unless the body concerned decides otherwise, and that decisions of the conference reached at any private meeting must be announced at an early public meeting of the conference.

Miss Ellen Wilkinson, minister of education for England and Wales, was elected president of the conference and Leon Blum, former premier of France, was elected associate president. Five commissions were established, as follows: (I) Title, Preamble, Purposes, and Principal Functions; (II) The General Structure of the Organization; (III) The Executive Board and the Secretariat; (IV) Relations with the United Nations Organization and with Other International Organizations, also the Question of the Seat of the Organization; (V) The Interim Commission. A resolution was received from the Conference of the Allied Ministers of Education urging acceleration of the work of educational and cultural reconstruction in the liberated countries, and a second resolution from the same body recommended that the plans for the Educational and Cultural Organization provide for periodic meetings of the ministers of education of the United Nations.

Plenary sessions of the conference

extended through November 5. The conference then worked in the five commissions. The report indicates that these commissions were "moving rapidly." At the time of the report on November 13, a substantial agreement had been reached on the preamble, purposes, and functions of the organization. The statement of functions will provide against interference by the organization in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state. Commission II has decided that members of the United Nations shall automatically be granted the right of membership in UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization). Other nations may be admitted, subject to the conditions of the agreement to be negotiated with the United Nations Organization. The conference is to consist of the representatives of the members of the organization, and the government of each member-state will appoint not more than five delegates who are to be selected after consultation with educational and cultural bodies or a national commission.

The Commission on the Executive Board has decided that this board should consist of eighteen members, holding office for three years, six to be elected each year. The members are to be selected from among the delegates to the conference and, in electing members of this board, the conference must endeavor to assure an equitable distribution of persons competent in the arts, humanities, sciences, tech-

nology, education, and diffusion of ideas. Paris was selected as the seat of the organization.

The actions of Commission IV urged co-operation "with other specialized intergovernmental organizations or agencies whose interests and activities are related to its purposes." There was strong pressure on Commission V to authorize the Interim Commission to take action with respect to the educational rehabilitation of liberated countries. A formula was agreed upon that provides for a special technical subcommittee to examine and report to a Preparatory Commission, which, if it approves, will "take steps to bring such needs to the attention of governments, organizations, and persons wishing to assist by contributing money, supplies, or services in order that co-ordinated relief be given either directly by the donors to the countries requiring aid or indirectly through existing international relief organizations."

SIGNIFICANCE IN PAPER COVERS

Effective driver training Among materials of recent publication in paper covers of significance for workers in secondary schools is *Driver Training Reduces Traffic Accidents One Half*. It comes from the Traffic Engineering and Safety Department of the American Automobile Association, offices of which are in Washington, D.C., and it is put forward as "the first compre-

hensive study evaluating driver training for high-school youth, from analyses of driving records of 3,252 Cleveland [Ohio] high-school students." An analysis is reported of the accident and conviction records of 1,880 high-school students who received driver-training instruction and 1,372 high-school students who received no training. All these students obtained drivers' licenses. The instruction included both classroom instruction and behind-the-wheel training.

In addition to the main conclusion concerning the reduction of accidents as embodied in the title of the publication, several inferences of less significance are drawn from the investigation. A few may here be paraphrased. The conviction record of trained men drivers was slightly better than that of untrained drivers, but the difference seemed not to be statistically significant. A much larger percentage of trained students than of untrained students obtained licenses, probably because the students taking the course were those most interested in driving and also because those who took the course had their interest in driving increased.

The Foreword of the report estimates that driver-training courses involving both classroom and behind-the-wheel instruction have been conducted in as many as six hundred high schools and that courses including classroom instruction only have been given in "an additional several thousand high schools."

The small high school's library *A Handbook for the High School Teacher-Librarian* is the title of a Bulletin

of Information of the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia. The bulletin is by Eunice Wolfe, of the Kansas City (Missouri) Public Library, formerly extension librarian of the issuing institution. The reader may infer from the title that the *Handbook* is helpful primarily in small high schools which cannot provide full-time librarians. For such librarians there is information concerning standards for school libraries, housing and equipment, selection and ordering of books and nonbook materials, and organization and administration. Under the last broad heading are treated classification, cataloguing, preparing for circulation, withdrawals, loan routines, mending, the vertical file, and library agencies. A list of selected references is included for teacher-librarians who wish further help in the discharge of their responsibilities. Book slips and library cards of various kinds are illustrated by figures.

Sharing in school government The National Self Government Committee (80 Broadway, New York 5, New York), of which Richard Welling is chairman, has long been interested in encouraging schools to afford youth opportunity for growth in civic responsibility. A fresh indication of this interest is a brochure of twenty-eight pages, *Your School*

and Its Government, joint authorship of which is credited to Earl C. Kelley, professor of secondary education and guidance at Wayne University, and Roland C. Faunce, chief of the Division of Elementary and Secondary Education of Michigan's Department of Public Instruction. In brief and readable form, the publication goes over the fundamentals of pupil participation in school control in a democratic society and considers how school councils should be organized, methods of representation in them, the problem of service both to school and community, methods of measuring results, and the nature of the constitution or charter. The treatment has a properly balanced regard for essential theory and practice founded in experience, as illustrated in the following list of "don't's."

Don't undertake student participation in government unless you have *faith in young people* and can get that feeling of faith over to them. If you are timid or distrustful of what they may do, they will detect it and the enterprise will probably fail.

Don't make your *safeguards* the most prominent thing about your council. Of course, the principal and the Board of Education have veto power over the council but avoid the suspicious approach.

It is best not to *mimic other governments*. The government of the school should be unique to that school. If it is patterned after other forms of government, students are likely to think they are playing at it.

It is not wise to *take over the system of some other school intact*. What works in one school will not work in another and the government must be characteristic of the particular school.

Don't set up a list of eligibility rules for office which will exclude the people the students really want. Students who are behavior problems and make low grades often change when they feel the school is theirs. To exclude them from their franchise and their right to hold office only makes them worse.

Don't attempt to *control elections* or to otherwise "load the dice." This belies faith and confidence in the young people, and this faith and confidence is a basic requirement for the success of the enterprise.

If nothing else will stimulate progress toward greater pupil participation in matters of school control and improved organization of the student body to achieve that progress, the recent epidemic of student strikes should do so. While the purpose of pupil participation should look far beyond the mere abatement of the widespread school-strike nuisance, an effectively organized and operating student council and student-body organization would accomplish this in stride while achieving the goal of a more responsible citizenship in our kind of society.

Aids to counseling Two bulletins from federal sources are designed to help in counseling youth in their choice of occupations. One is called *Guide to Counseling Materials* and has the subtitle "Selected WMC Publications Useful to School and Adult Counselors." This bulletin is a joint publication of the United States Office of Education and of the Bureau of Training of the War Manpower Commission. All publications listed are annotated to indicate the nature of their content, and those

"especially useful to counselors of in-school youth" are marked with asterisks. The charge for this bulletin is nowhere indicated in it, but prices for all publications listed are given.

The second publication, *Occupational Data for Counselors: A Handbook of Census Information Selected for Use in Guidance*, is Bulletin 817 of the United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and has been published in co-operation with the United States Office of Education. As may be inferred from the title, the brochure contains information on numbers and proportions of persons employed in occupations and groups of occupations, the numbers at successive census periods, proportions in the groups employed and unemployed, and the like. This bulletin is for sale at ten cents by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C.

THE MICHIGAN STUDY OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

TWO new publications are at hand from the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum. It may be recalled that this study, instituted in 1937, was planned as an analogue of the Eight-Year Study of nation-wide scope, which had had its inception several years earlier and was likewise designed to encourage curriculum innovation and improvement unhampered by traditional college-entrance requirements—development of "programs geared to the needs of youth." One of the publications is entitled *The*

Michigan Secondary Study and is a report on the study in general which had, at the time of preparation of the report, completed the eighth year of its projected twelve-year span. It was prepared for the Directing Committee of the Study by Theodore D. Rice, director of the study, and Roland C. Faunce, chief of the Division of Elementary and Secondary Education of Michigan's Department of Public Instruction. The other publication, called *Some Went to College*, with the subtitle "A Follow-up Study of the College Records of 382 Graduates of Michigan High Schools," is credited to Faunce alone.

The more general brochure tells about the inception, purposes, and point of view of the study; its organization, including a report on sources of funds; the activities carried on (survey of status, evaluation, the follow-up study, workshops, conferences, etc.); publications; developments in the co-operating schools; and recommendations and "next steps." One gains from this report the impression that the study served as an important stimulus of curriculum modification in the fifty or more schools co-operating. The second publication lists the following modifications occurring in one or more schools: efforts at correlation, core programs (or unified-studies classes), "nature-of-proof" courses in plane geometry, "senior science" courses, work-experience projects, renewed interest in student councils, preschool faculty conferences, surveys of parents' opinions, uses of varied

sources of materials for study, student-teacher planning, self-evaluation and group evaluation, evaluation of more than subject mastery, flexibility within schedules, service to the community, and "a creative, experimental atmosphere."

The making of an effective investigation of the success of graduates of modified high-school programs in comparison with students who had taken the usual college-preparatory programs was seriously hindered by wartime conditions. The numbers of graduates continuing in college dropped off sharply, and the proportion of men was much smaller than that of women. Another weakness of the inquiry was that the actual programs taken by the groups of transfer students were not analyzed, so that one cannot know just what the differences in programs taken had been. The author of *Some Went to College* is, therefore, quite appropriately conservative in his conclusions from this phase of the study. However, some importance would seem to attach to the fact that the records, after entrance to college, of the graduates of schools with the modified programs and of graduates of other schools were not significantly different. This finding corroborates the conclusion of several earlier investigations that the pattern of subjects taken in high school is not an important factor of success in college. It should work as a great boon to curriculum making at the high-school level when the import of this conclusion penetrates and permeates policies

in requirements for admission legislated by college authorities.

THE DANGER OF RISING BUILDING COSTS

A SPECIAL bulletin from the Office of Price Administration warns of the danger of rapidly rising costs for construction of public-school buildings if school authorities "engage in a wild scramble for materials." The bulletin refers to the huge backlog of building, repair work, and equipment to restore the school plant to its 1939-40 status and also to expand and improve that plant to meet the educational needs of America's children and youth; and it indicates how stable prices can help safeguard building plans. It reports that building-material prices have been controlled much better than during and after World War I. Between July, 1914, and November, 1918, these prices went up 93 per cent,

and by April, 1920, they were 219 per cent above 1914 levels. In contrast, building-material prices as of the summer of 1945 were 30 per cent above the 1939 level. It is apparent that, if these price levels can be held, school systems will be in a relatively good economic position to proceed with their war-delayed building plans.

The special bulletin reviews the O.P.A.'s "definite pricing program" for building materials and durable equipment and urges school authorities to acquaint themselves with it. Some of the information can be secured from the Price Control Boards in local communities. If the information is not available there, it can be secured by writing to the District Information Executive in the nearest O.P.A. District Office or by getting in touch with the corresponding executive in the nearest Regional Office of the O.P.A.

LEONARD V. KOOS

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago. MARY LICHLITER, associate director of the Department of Counseling Service at Boston University, as the result of a survey of social obligations and restrictions placed on women teachers, concludes that the treatment of teachers in most communities is less rigorous than is commonly believed. LESLIE L. CHISHOLM, professor of school administration at Teachers College of the University of Nebraska, reports the findings of a study of difficulties which prevent high-school guidance programs from operating at maximum efficiency. EDWARD WARDER RANNELLS, professor and head of the Department of Art at the University of Kentucky, discusses art study in the junior high school from the viewpoint of its contribution to general education. MABEL F. MCKEE, teacher at Amos Hiatt Junior High School, Des Moines, Iowa, describes the program of guidance in the field of social

courtesies which was used with great success in a junior high school situation. ALEXANDER FRAZIER, a curriculum co-ordinator in the Secondary Division of the Los Angeles County Schools, presents a challenge to the school librarian, whom he sees as a teacher of teachers as well as a teacher of pupils. The selected references on secondary-school instruction have been compiled by LEONARD V. KOOS and AMY F. OWENS, a former student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago.

Reviewers of books NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago. EDWIN S. LIDE, teacher of English at Lake View High School, Chicago, Illinois. ROBERT L. FLEMING, graduate student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, on leave from the Woodstock School at Mussoorie, United Provinces, India. THOMAS M. CARTER, head of the Department of Education and director of Teacher Training at Albion College, Albion, Michigan.

SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS AND RESTRICTIONS PLACED ON WOMEN TEACHERS

MARY LICHLITER¹

Boston University

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THE reluctance of women students to think in terms of a teaching career poses a serious problem. When the question of an occupational goal is under consideration, the invariable answer is, "Anything but teaching." This, at least, is true in the Department of Counseling Service of Boston University, and it is true of women students ranging from the prospective Freshman to the graduating Senior. There are variants to that answer, but they all indicate an unwillingness to consider teaching as a lifework except as a last resort.

A recent article² confirms this trend and discusses candidly the failure of many of the best-qualified high-school graduates to plan for a teaching career. Herlinger asked the 160 Senior girls of the Mount Lebanon (Pennsylvania) High School to answer this question: "Why would I not like to be a teacher?" In the tabulation of reasons which he found to be deterring girls from entering the teaching pro-

fession, "social reasons" stood third in the list.

The present report is based on a questionnaire study designed to gather factual information on the specific social restrictions and obligations imposed on women teachers today in towns with populations of not more than twelve thousand. It was hoped that this study, limited though it is, could help isolate some of those factors which would make college curriculums in teacher preparation more meaningful and provide more adequate training for the future teachers of small towns or cities. Such a frank facing of the actual needs and problems, the elimination of fears which may not be warranted, and the development of attitudes of objectivity and understanding within the student body might well undermine one of the reasons for the present acute teacher shortage.

The one reservation made in the study was that of delimiting the population. This was based on the premise that only in smaller towns and cities could such social restrictions and obligations be enforced rigidly or social pressure make itself stringently felt upon the teachers. It seemed that

¹ This study received a 1945 award of the Ella Victoria Dodds Fellowship Fund of Pi Lambda Theta, national educational association for women.

² Harry V. Herlinger, "And Gladly Teach," *Occupations*, XXIII (December, 1944), 147-51.

neither age nor marital status would materially affect the results, although they might have an influence upon an individual's reaction toward existing conditions.

The response was gratifying. There was a 48 per cent reply from 232 separate communities in 34 of the 48 states. Five teachers gave no personal data but indicated that they taught in towns which imposed no restrictions and made no demands upon them. Their replies are included in the data presented later.

PERSONAL DATA

The personal data gleaned from the questionnaire show that the respondents fell in four age groups: 18-22 years, 14 per cent; 23-28 years, 37 per cent; 29-35 years, 15 per cent; over 35 years, 34 per cent. The age representations within various geographical regions were quite consistent, except that the East Central and the West had greater proportions of respondents who were over 35. More than half who responded were teaching in towns with populations under 3,000; 23 per cent in towns with populations below 1,000; 32 per cent in towns of between 1,000 and 3,000; 16.5 per cent in towns of between 3,000 and 5,000; 12 per cent in towns of between 5,000 and 7,000; 16.5 per cent in towns of between 7,000 and 12,000.

Eighty-one per cent of the teachers were single; 15 per cent, married; 2 per cent, widowed; 2 per cent, divorced. Fifty-five per cent were living

in their own homes or apartments; 45 per cent were in rooming- or boarding-houses.

There were 97 per cent teaching in public schools; 3 per cent in private schools. Ten per cent were Catholics; 81 per cent were Protestants; 7 per cent indicated no religious preference. There was one who held to the Jewish faith, and one was a member of the Greek Orthodox church.

The range of teaching experience extended from one year to forty years. However, half of those responding to the questionnaire had been teaching only between one and five years, while 60 per cent had been teaching in the present community between one and five years.

In summary, we find that the random sampling provided a good cross-section of age and population groups. Most of the teachers were single, Protestant, and teaching in public schools. It would appear that living arrangements were flexible, as more than half were able to live in their own homes or apartments—an arrangement which assures greater privacy and independence. The fact that such a large proportion had been teaching only during the war years makes it difficult to obtain a valid clue as to the effect of the war and the consequent teacher shortage upon the results of the study.

SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS

The first section of the questionnaire dealt with the social obligations imposed upon women teachers in the

smaller towns and cities. The data concerning the activities in which teachers are expected to participate are as follows: 33 per cent of the total group were expected to attend church, but only 14 per cent were expected to be members of a church; 10 per cent were expected to attend Sunday school, and 9 per cent were asked to teach in Sunday school; 10 per cent were expected to take part in other church activities; and 29 per cent were ex-

or member of the school¹ board; general social pressure, which included advice given by another teacher or by a friend.

Table 1 summarizes the findings for the six areas, showing the sources of "advice" in almost all the communities which imposed these requirements upon their teachers. The obligation to participate in church attendance, church membership, Sunday-school attendance, Sunday-school teaching, and church activities was imposed, to a large extent, by general social pressure. In community activities, the source of the obligation was closely divided between advice by the school board or employer and social pressure. The extra-curriculum activities, being more specifically related to the schools, were imposed almost entirely either by contract or by advice of the administration.

TABLE 1
SOURCE OF INSTRUCTION OR "ADVICE" BY
WHICH SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS
WERE IMPOSED

SOCIAL OBLIGATION	NUM- BER OF TEACH- ERS RE- PLYING	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS INDICAT- ING AS SOURCE OF ADVICE		
		Con- tract	School Board	Social Pres- sure
Church attendance.....	64	14	16	70
Church membership.....	20	20	10	70
Sunday-school attendance...	20	15	20	65
Sunday-school teaching...	16	13	19	68
Other church activities...	15	27	73
Community activities.....	51	6	45	49
Extra-curriculum activi- ties.....	108	45	45	10

pected to take part in community activities. Participation in the extra-curriculum life of the school was more generally demanded, being expected of 67 per cent of the group.

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTION OR "ADVICE"

The next consideration was to learn by what source of instruction or "advice" these social obligations were imposed. It was found that three categories were sufficient: contract or oral agreement at the time of employment; later advice by employer

The teachers to whom the questionnaire was sent were also asked to give their attitude toward such requirements or expectations on the part of the employers or the communities. Not all the replies gave this information. One might assume that, if an individual neither resents nor favors an obligation demanded of her, it really makes no difference to her. The figures, however, as presented in Table 2, are based on the actual number of teachers who checked these columns. The total percentage of replies shows that half

TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS

or more favored church attendance, church membership, Sunday-school attendance, and participation in community activities and extra-curriculum activities. Three-fourths, however, resented any demand to teach Sunday school, and in respect to other church activities it was a matter of indifference to almost two-thirds who replied.

SUMMARY OF DATA CONCERNING SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS

Comments injected here and there made possible some interpretation of the foregoing data. In a number of instances, participation in community activities was felt to be of real help in one's work and to provide, at the same time, an opportunity for social contacts. These community activities were women's clubs, parent-teachers' associations, garden clubs, special civic or professional clubs, and the Grange. Whatever resentment was expressed seemed to be due solely to the fact that too much participation was demanded—and in too many diverse activities. This attitude was also felt toward church activities, such as taking part in women's missionary societies, supplying all the music for special occasions, helping with church suppers and fairs, and assisting in the young people's work.

Almost without exception, those who resented the demands made on them by extra-curriculum responsibilities did so, not because of the activities themselves, which they felt were a part of their school obligation,

but because of the heavy burden that these activities too often imposed. They objected when the extra-curriculum load was not equally divided and shared among the teaching staff or when every teacher was required to attend every school function. The school-club responsibilities usually included Camp Fire Girls, Girl Scouts, Girl Reserves, and 4-H clubs. Chaperoning seemed to be most frequently demanded, while directing plays, musi-

TABLE 2
REPLIES CONCERNING ATTITUDES
TOWARD SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS

SOCIAL OBLIGATION	NUM- BER OF TEACH- ERS RE- PLYING	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS INDIC- ATING ATTITUDE TOWARD OBLI- GATION		
		Re- sent	No Dif- fer- ence	Favor
Church attendance.....	67	7	30	63
Church membership.....	26	23	15	62
Sunday-school attendance.....	22	32	0	59
Sunday-school teaching....	17	76	12	12
Other church activities....	33	15	64	21
Community activities.....	48	27	25	48
Extra-curriculum activities	101	21	29	50

cal organizations, forensics, and school publications covers the general range of the out-of-class activities which these teachers were asked to assume. Many acknowledged, also, that the war had added greatly to the community and school responsibilities inasmuch as bond drives, war-stamp collections, Red Cross work, scrap collections, and registration for rationing were centered in the teachers' "after-work" hours. The fact that a large percentage of those replying should resent having to go to Sunday

school or to teach Sunday-school classes is easily understood because these are somewhat in the nature of a busman's holiday for the weekday teachers. Looking at the total picture, 61 per cent of the communities represented by this questionnaire expected *nothing* of their teachers in the way of church or community activities.

TABLE 3

SOURCE OF INSTRUCTION OR "ADVICE" BY WHICH SOCIAL RESTRICTIONS WERE IMPOSED

SOCIAL RESTRICTION	NUMBER OF TEACHERS REPORTING	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS INDICATING AS SOURCE OF ADVICE		
		Contract	School Board	Social Pressure
Smoking.....	82	12	31	67
Drinking.....	114	11	27	62
Dancing.....	11	45	55
Card-playing.....	6	33	67
"Dating" with students.....	93	12	26	62
Marriage.....	22	68	9	23
Divorce.....	11	100
Certain types of dress.....	21	29	71
Week ends away.....	5	60	40

RESTRICTIONS AFFECTING PERSONAL HABITS

The second section of the questionnaire was set up to find the extent to which women teachers are restricted in personal habits and activities. The teachers were asked to check each activity in terms of the general application to women teachers in the community, regardless of whether they personally desired to engage in the activity or whether they objected to it on a personal basis.

Results of the questionnaire indicate that 55 per cent of the total group were forbidden to drink alco-

holic beverages; 38 per cent, forbidden to smoke; 53 per cent were expressly forbidden to "date" with students; 11 per cent, forbidden to wear certain types or styles of dress; and 15 per cent were forbidden to marry while employed by the school. In the case of the other items listed—dancing; card-playing; divorce; wearing lipstick, nail polish, rouge, and powder; and spending week ends away from the community—the data showed negligible percentages of communities forbidding these activities.

SOURCES OF INSTRUCTION OR ADVICE

In the area of personal restrictions as well as in the area of social obligations, the most consistent source of "advice" was that exerted by general social pressure. Examination of Table 3 reveals that the taboo on smoking, drinking, "dating" with students, card-playing, or wearing certain types of dress was due largely to social pressure, gossip, and social ostracism. Advice from the employer or member of the school board shared with "Mrs. Grundy" the responsibility for the restrictions against dancing and spending week ends away from the community. Divorce was "forbidden" solely by social pressure, while marriage, to a greater extent, was forbidden by contract or oral agreement at the time of employment.

TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD SOCIAL RESTRICTIONS

Table 4 presents the total picture with regard to the attitudes expressed

by the teachers toward existing social restrictions. Only 24 per cent objected to the restriction on smoking as opposed to the 76 per cent either favoring or not concerned; 12 per cent objected to the drinking restriction as opposed to the 88 per cent either favoring or not concerned; 3 per cent objected to not being allowed to "date" with students, while 97 per cent either favored the restriction or were not concerned about it. In the case of the marriage restriction, however, 76 per cent objected while 24 per cent were not concerned.

SUMMARY OF DATA CONCERNING SOCIAL RESTRICTIONS

To summarize the data just reviewed it would appear from this sampling that the restrictions actually imposed upon women teachers in small towns or cities are not so universal or extensive as is currently thought. Except for one instance in New England and another in the Middle Atlantic area, the reports showed no restrictions on the use of lipstick, nail polish, rouge, and powder. Dancing and card-playing are forbidden only in isolated cases. Even spending week ends away from the community in which one teaches is much more commonly allowed than has been alleged. There are some restrictions in dress, but in most cases these are restrictions imposed by "taste" rather than by any wholesale condemnation of certain types of dress. For instance, in some communities the wearing of slacks, ankle socks,

shorts, and leg make-up is forbidden to their teachers at all times, but in most places, any restriction on dress is a simple matter of the appropriate dress for the occasion. Informal dress is approved for picnics and sports.

"Dating" in general is wholly accepted by all these communities. Only "dating" with students is frowned upon, and in this situation the age dif-

TABLE 4
REPLIES CONCERNING ATTITUDES
TOWARD SOCIAL RESTRICTIONS

SOCIAL RESTRICTION	NUM- BER OF TEACH- ERS RE- PLYING	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS INDICATING ATTITUDE TOWARD RESTRICTION		
		Ob- ject	Not Con- cerned	Favor
Smoking.....	67	24	34	42
Drinking.....	97	12	23	65
Dancing.....	6	83	17
Card-playing.....	2	50	50
"Dating" with students ..	96	3	17	80
Marriage.....	17	76	24
Divorce.....	8	13	87
Wearing lipstick.....	1	100
Wearing nail polish.....	2	100
Wearing rouge.....	1	100
Wearing powder.....	1	100
Wearing certain types of dress.....	17	35	30	35
Spending week ends away.	3	33	67

ferential would operate under any circumstances. The large number of teachers over twenty-one years of age could well account for the greater percentage who favored such a restriction.

Smoking and drinking, while more generally restricted, are shown, in a number of the comments, to be not so much moral issues as matters of taste and suitability. The proper time and place for such activities and temperate habits are the important considerations. The replies stressed, particu-

larly in many communities, that smoking and drinking, even when forbidden in public, are tolerated in private. Of course the question of bias must be acknowledged in relation to attitudes expressed toward these two restrictions. It is natural that the answers should be influenced to a large extent by the teachers' personal habits. In view of the large percentage of respondents who were not concerned or who favored the restrictions on drinking and smoking, it may be safe to assume that they did not care to indulge in either.

There are several interesting aspects to note. First, data not reported here show a general lack of restrictions in the West, the Middle Atlantic, and the East Central states. In the second place, 27 per cent of the total number of those replying to the questionnaire lived in communities which placed absolutely no restrictions upon their teachers, while 5 per cent taught in communities where the only restriction forbade marriage while under contract. Finally, three other items were added under "miscellaneous" as forbidden in certain communities: sick leave without a physician's permit; late hours; and participation in politics, especially in a minority party.

EFFECT OF THE WAR

The question naturally arises whether the war and the subsequent shortage of teachers have been responsible for this seeming discrepancy between general opinion and fact as illustrated in this particular sampling.

Thirty-four per cent of the replies indicated that the war had occasioned a slackening of restrictions; only 1 per cent, that there had been a tightening; and 18 per cent, that there had been no change. The 47 per cent of the respondents who failed to answer this question may well have been in the one-to-five years' teaching group and thus have had no comparative standard of judgment. The lessening of the restriction on married teachers was indicated as one of the most consistent evidences of a definite change in policy since the beginning of the war.

PREPARATION OF THE TEACHER

Finally, an effort was made to discover whether these teachers felt that their colleges had given them adequate training for small-town teaching positions. With a 40 per cent response, there was found to be an amazing consensus of opinion from the group as a whole concerning the needs which had not been met by the colleges. One major emphasis was repeated again and again—more of the practical, less theory. Here are a few of these personal comments:

A practical course in the problems of teaching.

Practice teaching in a situation similar to that in a small town instead of an almost ideal laboratory school.

Less idealism and more facts about real life situations.

For rural teaching, actual problems in practice teaching.

A more practical method of knowing how to deal with people in general.

A lot of theories learned in college are too idealistic and not very practical.

Less method talk and more actual experience with children of all ages.

The second emphasis was on the social skills. Many seemed to feel that their college preparation lacked training in group leadership and development in social graces, such as dancing, card-playing, and hostess accomplishments. There should be greater stress on the value of skill in many phases of the extra-curriculum, such as sports, debate, oratory, plays, and dances. Closely allied to these felt needs were other more personal ones—ability to express one's self in words, good speaking voice, good posture, personality development.

The third emphasis in these personal comments was also a recurrent theme: "Why couldn't the colleges have taught us how to get along with 'folks'—with other faculty members, townspeople, with all classes of people?" There is a great need for more knowledge of human relations through social psychology, the very fundamental problems of co-operation, student-teacher relationships, and general attitudes. Linked with this perhaps most basic need of all, personal relationships, was the feeling that somewhere in their college courses their teachers should have prepared them for small-town mores, for the gossip and interest that center in the teacher in a community, for the constant demands made on the teacher. An extreme situation is described by one respondent:

If my college had taken time to tell me that teachers do not have an honored position in the community, but are regarded as disappointed females who can't get a man, I would have worked in a dime store for a living. Had I realized that a teacher lives under a magnifying glass, that her telephone calls are listened to and repeated, that her comings and goings interest the whole town, and that she has absolutely no private life, I would never have started. Colleges would do well to deal with a few facts.

If, on the other hand, colleges did deal with the "facts" and, in practical courses in social psychology and rural sociology, showed how these same facts could be met, the bitterness and disillusionment might not be so great. As another teacher wrote:

As people differ, so do small villages and cities differ. Therefore a college should give a broad study of these expected differences so that a teacher, when accepting a position, can study the community and will not find difficulty in adjusting herself.

There were other practical suggestions:

Two weeks' or a month's trial in working and living in a small town instead of having only one period or one day a week for a semester of supervision in the city critic system.

More and better guidance or counseling provided for the prospective teacher.

More acquaintance with available sources and interesting teaching materials.

Bring in people who have taught in small towns to talk with prospective teachers.

However, 20 per cent of the teachers responding to this question paid tribute to their colleges for their adequate preparation:

My college was strictly liberal arts and did not attempt to prepare us for anything. Somehow, in spite of that philosophy, we managed to learn "adaptability." That to me is the prime essential in teaching or in doing anything anywhere.

I feel that my college adequately prepared me for meeting the problems of a small-town teaching position.

As I attended ——— University, I feel they knew the problems we had to face and prepared us to meet these situations.

GENERAL COMMENTS

Quite apart from this specific question concerning their college training, the teachers were also asked to add any comments that they desired on the back of the questionnaire. Many responded, and what they had to say would both enlighten and enliven the tabulations of the study. They evinced an interest in the study and contributed greatly to it from their own experiences. One of the most noticeable factors in these comments was, once again, their similarity in all localities, from Florida to Oregon. While individual communities differed from one another, individual reactions carried no regional flavor.

Another interesting aspect of these comments was the frequent assertion that the teacher's present community was "unusually liberal," "more liberal than many," or "far more lenient than others where I have taught." Contrary to the rather usual human belief that the grass is always greener on the other side of the fence, these teachers considered themselves fortunate that they lived in a community

which was free from restrictive controls and, by implication, maintained that this was the exception that proved the rule.

Quite a number said that they came from small towns and thus did not have any adjustment to make, as they were all too familiar with customs and demands. Several teachers also brought out the fact that the war and the teacher shortage had, in many instances, forced a more liberal policy. One teacher felt that the younger teachers were doing a great deal to break down what barriers existed, as "social opinion didn't bother them as it did older teachers."

However, in those instances where the teachers faced considerable restrictive controls, the resentment was somewhat bitter, especially in communities in which teachers were restricted in habits permitted other employed women. It is always difficult to accept the hypocrisy of a community which has one code for its teachers and another for its other members.

Other sources of irritation, not mentioned in the questionnaire, were added. Among these were: differentials in pay between the sexes, more rapid promotion of men, other minor but important discriminations against the women teachers in the matter of privileges, politics in the school system, heavy teaching load, careless administration, burdens of discipline, and resentment against younger teachers by those older. The opinions quoted were isolated comments which may or may not have general connotation,

There was a dominant recurring theme which may well be one of those subtle intangibles which lie at the bottom of much of the "general popular opinion" about small towns. It is the spirit of the "party line," which expresses itself, on the one hand, in gossip and intense interest in other people's business and, on the other, in a cliquishness and seclusiveness which allows no outsider within the familiar circle. This feeling was expressed by such comments as: "Idle tongues of women," "Building up tall tales," "Gossip and social ostracism," "Never invited to social and recreational functions," "Always made to feel a teacher," "No friends in town," "Set apart from the warm human life of the community."

Here is the major emphasis of the entire study: the dividing line between those communities which provide a satisfying, happy environment for their teachers and those communities which generate only distrust, suspicion, and unhappiness. In the first, teachers are treated "as human beings, allowed to live a normal life, be judges of their own conduct, and credited with good sense enough to govern their own lives." In the second, the teachers are set apart as different from the townspeople, individuals "who wouldn't even know how to have fun"; who have no right to enjoy life; who must "dress soberly, attend only a few social affairs such as the P.T.A. or Women's Club, 'date' at the risk of an official call-down, and be always the main source of gossip for the towns-

people, whose usual topic is the 'schoolmarm's.'"

CONCLUSION

On the basis of such a limited sampling it is impossible to affirm that the lot of the woman teacher in small towns is unduly hard. The fact is that this situation varies from town to town. Communities, like individuals, follow the principle of "individual differences." There does seem, however, to be a pattern:

1. The major troubles which teachers face are the irritating intangibles: the subtle cold shoulder to the stranger, the nuances which disturb and hurt, the small indignities committed against human beings by not treating them as fully and sensitively human, by not according them the same rights to enjoy life, to exercise judgment, and to live their private lives in privacy.

2. One is impressed with the fact that, while there is much to be done to assure teachers security, self-respect, personal freedom, and satisfaction from their jobs, there is a very definite process of change—for the better. The teacher-community relationship is in a state of flux, but the movement is in the right direction.

3. On the whole, this study reflects credit on the employing group. There is consistent evidence to show that administrators and local school boards do not exercise the major controls. It is the community in general, expressing itself through social pressure, which is in need of drastic reformation in spirit and attitude.

MAJOR HANDICAPS INTERFERING WITH GUIDANCE

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GUIDANCE has come to be almost universally accepted as a necessary part of the work of the modern school. This is not a conclusion reached by a few educational theorists; it is as readily recognized by classroom teachers and school administrators as by any other group. Yet all seem to agree that a large majority of the schools are actually doing little in carrying on a comprehensive program of guidance. Why does this seemingly contradictory condition exist?

NATURE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

If school people themselves feel that a reform is necessary and yet do little to remedy the situation, there are probably major handicaps standing in the way. With the foregoing thought in mind, a survey was made of the high schools of the state of Washington to determine the stumbling blocks that prevent the schools from providing youth an acceptable program of guidance as a regular part of the work of the schools. A questionnaire was carefully prepared and sent to the high-school principals throughout the state asking each principal (1) whether his school had a modern program of guidance and (2) if not, what

seemed to him to be the major handicap or handicaps standing in the way of a guidance program in his school. The principal was encouraged to list more than one handicap if more than one existed in his school.

The questionnaire suggested a number of probable handicaps. These handicaps were listed indiscriminately and then recombined when the results of the survey were tabulated. Also included were statements to encourage high-school principals to name any other handicap that did not appear on the list. Replies were received from 175 schools, virtually all the high schools in the state.

CLASSIFYING THE SCHOOLS

The schools were divided into three classifications according to enrolment. Taking part in the study were 97 schools with enrolments of 150 or less, considered as "small" schools; 45 schools with enrolments of from 151 to 400, considered as schools of "average" size; and 33 schools with enrolments of more than 400, thought of as "large" schools. These classifications are to some extent arbitrary. However, the fact that schools with enrolments of 150 or more are large enough

to have home rooms if they care to do so was believed to have some bearing on the nature of the handicaps to guidance in those schools. Likewise, it is generally recognized that, when the enrolment of a high school reaches

THE FINDINGS

The findings of the present study are presented in Table 1. Two handicaps stand out significantly as those most frequently encountered. A total of 64.0 per cent, virtually two out of

TABLE 1

MAJOR HANDICAPS INTERFERING WITH GUIDANCE PROGRAMS IN WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOLS IN THREE ENROLMENT GROUPS

HANDICAP	PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS			
	Small (1-150 Pupils)	Average (151-400 Pupils)	Large (More than 400 Pupils)	All Schools
Teachers and teaching load:				
Teachers generally inadequately prepared for type of guidance needed.....	57.7	57.8	90.9	64.0
Teachers and principal too busy to carry on guidance program.....	62.9	66.7	60.6	63.4
During preparation of guidance program a large percentage of teachers move on to other positions.....	39.2	40.0	30.3	37.7
Teachers lack interest in guidance.....	24.7	26.7	51.5	30.3
Leadership:				
Inability to judge how well guidance work actually meets the need.....	35.1	40.0	42.4	37.7
Insufficient knowledge of methods of planning and carrying on a comprehensive guidance program.....	27.8	31.1	27.3	28.6
Declining teacher interest in attempted guidance program.....	16.5	26.7	30.3	21.7
Other problems:				
Lack of money.....	13.4	20.0	33.3	18.9
Guidance needs of students in school not urgent.....	28.9	6.7	17.7
School too small to carry on guidance program.....	16.5	2.2	9.7
Belief that guidance is a "fad" or "frill" and not part of work of modern school.....
Students given enough work that they do not have time for guidance.....
Guidance requires specialists whom school does not have.....	6.2	3.4
Students get enough guidance at home.....	2.1	1.1

100 pupils per grade, or 400 for the four-year high school, the school then is large enough to carry on a comprehensive program of secondary education. That point in enrolment, therefore, may affect the types of handicaps to the guidance work in those schools

every three schools, reported that the teachers generally are inadequately prepared to provide the type of guidance needed. A total of 63.4 per cent of the schools said that teachers and the principal are too busy to carry on a program of guidance.

Two handicaps tied for third and fourth places, with a total of 37.7 per cent of the schools. One of these involves the mobility of teaching personnel; as one principal stated: "About the time we get a guidance program under way, a large percentage of our teachers move on to other schools where they have accepted positions." The second of these two factors pertains to the quality of leadership underlying the guidance work in a given school. Thus 37.7 per cent, more than a third, of the schools also said that they are unable to judge how well their guidance work actually meets the need.

Approximately a third of the schools (30.3 per cent) reported that their teachers seem not to be interested in guidance. This item ranks fifth among the handicaps. The items which rank in sixth and seventh places involve the question of leadership. A total of 28.6 per cent of the schools reported: "We seem not to know how to take hold of the problem of planning and carrying on a comprehensive guidance program." More than a fifth of the schools (21.7 per cent) said: "We have tried to carry on a comprehensive program, but every time we try it the interest of the teachers in the work plays out after a few months."

Table 1 contains seven items listed under "Other Problems." Five of those items were found to be relatively insignificant and some nonexistent as handicaps. However, from the point of view of the present study, the

information concerning those factors is extremely significant. Lack of money is a handicap to guidance in 18.9 per cent, slightly less than one out of every five schools. A total of 17.7 per cent of the schools said that the guidance needs of their students are not urgent. A few (9.7 per cent) said that their schools are too small to carry on a guidance program. Only six schools (3.4 per cent of the total) reported that guidance should be conducted by specialists and that their schools do not have such specialists.

It is interesting to find that no school included in the present study believed that guidance is a "fad" or "frill" and therefore not an essential part of the work of the modern school. Likewise, no school said that it gives its students so much work that they do not have time for guidance. Only two of the 175 schools (1.1 per cent) reported that their students get enough guidance at home and do not, therefore, need guidance at school.

COMPARISONS AMONG THE THREE SIZES OF SCHOOLS

The size of the school is important in at least six of the fourteen handicaps listed in Table 1. It is interesting to note that inadequate teacher preparation as a handicap varies directly with the size of the school. Thus 90.9 per cent of the large schools, 57.8 per cent of the average-size schools, and 57.7 per cent of the small schools reported inadequate preparation of teachers as a handicap to guidance.

The difference between the small and the average-size schools for this item is not important, but the variation between the large schools, on the one hand, and the small and average size schools, on the other, is significant.

Approximately 40 per cent of the small and average-size schools said that teacher turnover is a handicap to their guidance work. As may be expected, the large schools do not so frequently find this to be a handicap as do the small and the average-size schools. However, 30.3 per cent of the large schools are handicapped by this factor.

The size of the school is an index of teacher interest in guidance, according to the findings in the present study. Approximately a fourth of the small and the average-size schools and slightly more than one-half of the large schools find lack of interest of teachers in guidance to be a handicap.

Almost twice the proportion of large schools as compared with that of the small schools (30.3 per cent as compared with 16.5) said that teacher interest in guidance declined after they had tried to carry on a guidance program for a few months. The experience of the average-size schools (26.7 per cent find this factor a handicap) concerning this handicap is not significantly different from that of the large schools.

There is a relationship between size of school and lack of money as a handicap to guidance. Exactly a third of the large schools and a fifth of the

average-size schools find the lack of money a hindrance, while slightly more than an eighth (13.4 per cent) of the small schools said that lack of funds stands in their way.

It is interesting to note that no large school and only three (6.7 per cent) of the forty-five average-size schools said that the guidance needs of their pupils are not urgent. On the other hand, 28.9 per cent of the small schools reported this factor as a handicap. The variation is not significant among the schools in their belief that guidance should be conducted by specialists while their school had none. That is, 6.2 per cent of the small schools reported this factor as a handicap, while no average-size school and no large school reported it.

It seems logical that no large school would say that it is too small to carry on a guidance program, and such is the finding of the present study. Only one of the forty-five average-size schools reported this item as a handicap. However, 16.5 per cent of the small schools said that they are too small to carry on a guidance program.

INTERPRETING THE FINDINGS

The findings reported in the present study have a number of significant implications. The fact that inadequate teacher preparation is the most frequent handicap standing in the way of guidance is a direct indictment of the incompleteness of the teacher-training program in institutions of higher learning. Teacher-training institutions

should demonstrate farsighted leadership in sensing the types of work needed in a modern program of education. They then should revise their program of teacher training to such an extent that it provides the necessary preparation. When teacher-training institutions fail to meet this responsibility, their program becomes, to that extent, devoid of leadership, and the schools are left to work out solutions to their own problems as best they can. Teacher-training institutions should rise to the challenge of this handicap and plan their work to meet the need.

The fact that the large schools found inadequate teacher preparation a more frequent handicap than did the small and average-size schools may have a direct bearing on (1) the permanency of tenure in the large schools as compared with that in the small and the average-size schools and (2) the lack of an adequate in-service training program in the large schools as a parallel to the tenure situation. It is commonly known that the beginning teacher and the young teacher generally find employment in the small or average-size school. After a period of time he may secure a position in a large school. This being the case, the teachers with training in the field of guidance are likely to be found more frequently in the smaller and the average-size schools, since guidance has only recently come to be considered an important part of the professional training of teachers.

There is justification for believing that the lack of interest in guidance on the part of a number of teachers, as indicated in Table 1, is closely related to inadequate teacher preparation. It is difficult to find a teacher who still remains disinterested when he really sees the fundamental contribution to be made by any aspect of the work of the school to the education of youth. On the other hand, teachers cannot be expected to have and maintain a dynamic interest in guidance unless their preparation has shown them why guidance has come to be an essential part of the work of the modern school and has given them an understanding of the part that guidance should play in a program of secondary education.

When teachers and the principal of a school find that they do not have time for guidance, we reach one or the other of two fundamental conclusions. On the one hand, it could be that the teaching load actually is unduly heavy. As a result, the teachers and the principal may be forced, by necessity and not by choice, to neglect their guidance responsibilities. On the other hand, the statement about the lack of time might be an excuse, without basis in the facts of the case.

If the first of the two foregoing conclusions is justifiable (and the investigator's direct contact with a considerable number of the schools involved in this study causes him to believe that the proposal is essentially an ac-

curate statement of fact), then two other factors enter the picture. In the first place, the existing situation is due basically to the lack of adequate financial support for the schools. That is, the schools do not have sufficient money to hire enough teachers to do the job that the modern secondary school should do. The plan of school support in the state involved in the present study has been such as to pyramid the teaching load, with a decided handicap to the horizontal expansion of the educational program. Hence teachers are, by necessity of circumstances, forced to carry an undue teaching load and thereby to neglect important parts of an adequate educational program. The solution to such a condition seems clear. School people should co-ordinate their efforts in effective democratic leadership aimed at a program of adequate financial support. In the majority of cases this program will produce the desired results.

In the second place, a school is not entirely justified in taking the position that it does not have time for guidance until the teachers have thoroughly evaluated the relative worth of the things that they are now doing as compared with the worth of the things that they could and should be doing. Without such an evaluation the daily routine of teachers may become like the proverbial family attic. The need is to have a thorough house-cleaning from time to time, that is, a thorough evaluation by the faculty of the worth

of the things that are occupying the teachers' time.

Teacher turnover is a serious problem that always has been, and always will be, a factor which the schools must face. A guidance program in a school should be planned and administered in such a way that the normal teacher turnover is not a major handicap. This can be done (1) if the teacher-training institutions assume their responsibility for preparing teachers so that they will be able to assume their guidance responsibilities, (2) if those who employ teachers give sufficient attention to the needs of the guidance work in their own schools at the time when they select new teachers, and (3) if a school plans its guidance program on the basis of student needs rather than on the basis of the personalities of a given group of teachers.

There is a relationship between insufficient knowledge of methods of conducting guidance service and the fact that teachers lose interest in proposed guidance programs. When a significant number of schools report, as they did, that they do not know how to handle the problem of planning and carrying on a comprehensive guidance program, it may be inferred that teacher-training institutions have not recognized adequately the size of the task of planning and administering a guidance program in their training of teachers. Too many teachers and administrators who have had training in guidance still do not know

how to plan and administer a guidance program in harmony with the need existing in a given school. The task becomes relatively easy, however, when those responsible for this work know the factors to be considered and the method to be used in planning a guidance program.

The school has a real problem on its hands when it tries to carry on a program of guidance but finds that after a few months the interest of teachers diminishes. This condition generally grows out of one or more of three factors: (1) poor planning, or the undertaking of too comprehensive a guidance program and the overburdening of teachers during the first few months; (2) failure to provide adequate supervision and leadership in the administration of the guidance work, a number of teachers being left to flounder in their problems during the early part of the program; and (3) failure to carry through an evaluation of the results achieved in guidance so that all involved in the work know the nature and extent of the progress brought about by their efforts.

Although a guidance program does not call for a large amount of money, some expenditures are necessary at times. Hence those interested in the welfare of guidance should have an active practical interest in the financial support of the schools. In any case, this central fact should be kept in mind: when guidance suffers more than other essential parts of an adequate program of education, either

(1) the school finance program is faulty and needs revision or (2) the management of school moneys is poor.

Apparently school people feel that guidance is an essential part of the work of the modern school and that teachers have the responsibility for carrying on a program that meets this need. Although 17.7 per cent of the schools said that the guidance needs of students in their schools are not urgent, that statement is not discouraging; for more than 82 per cent of the schools are shown to have a feeling of responsibility for the guidance of high-school pupils. Perhaps no other part of the work of modern education would be recognized as essential by more than 82 per cent of the schools.

An accurate interpretation of the replies as to whether or not certain schools are too small to provide youth a guidance program calls for more information than was secured in the present study. This difficulty was recognized when the study was being planned, and the item "School too small to carry on a guidance program" was included in the questionnaire to learn whether or not those in the small high schools believe that size or enrolment is a major handicap to guidance. Two things seem clear. First, a school that is too small to carry on an adequate program of guidance is likely to be too small to carry on the other parts of a modern program of secondary educa-

tion. The solution in this case is school-district reorganization, or consolidation, as a means of forming districts that can provide youth the types of training that they should have. Second, it has been found in a number of studies that schools of all sizes throughout the state and the nation are carrying on commendable programs of guidance.

One final conclusion concerning the present investigation is worthy of emphasis. A knowledge of the handicaps that are standing in the way of a better program of secondary educa-

tion should form the foundation for a constructive effort to provide youth adequate educational experiences. This above all: the handicaps to guidance should be looked upon merely as stumbling blocks standing in the way temporarily rather than as legitimate excuses that relieve the schools of their inherent responsibility. The schools are under obligation to provide all youth everywhere a rich program of modern secondary education, and no handicap or combination of handicaps can excuse the schools from that responsibility.

OBJECTIVES OF ART EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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ART education in the junior high school should be concerned primarily with the development of understandings, appreciations, and abilities pertaining to art itself. In addition, it must take into account the personal and social objectives of general education in so far as these ends are capable of being realized through the experience of art; for it is the experience of art that education must emphasize. This is the concept developed by Dewey, and it has come to be axiomatic for art education.¹

In this article general education is taken as the frame of reference, because it is the only valid concept for education in the secondary schools. This concept means that the education provided should have general usefulness for everybody in the school and ultimately general application in life. No exception should be made for art. The art taught in junior high schools should have educational value for all individuals enrolled because, even in the case of those few who are presumed to have talent or who, for reasons of their own, may want to

specialize in art, the end criterion in general education is still to be found in the application of art to life, in its role in everyday living.

PRIMARY OBJECTIVES

Distinction will be made between primary and secondary objectives in art education: primary, in the sense that the teaching of art is the focal point; secondary, in the sense that art is used to teach something else, namely, the personal and social objectives of general education. What are here called the "primary objectives" are related to the development of understandings, appreciations, and skills in art—the perceptual and expressional skills essential to understanding. These skills are the means of attaining an intuitive realization of aesthetic values in art. In this sense they reinforce appreciation, and appreciation itself becomes a kind of knowledge or understanding, coming through a direct emotional experience of art rather than through merely descriptive information about it.

To this end the clearest goal—and, from the standpoint of general education, probably the most important

¹ John Dewey, *Art as Experience*. New York: Minton, Balch & Co., 1934.

goal—is the training of vision itself. I use the term “vision” in place of “visual perception” to suggest a relation to art as a visual language: aesthetic perception would be the fullest development of vision. Vision, like speech, is a tool skill. Both have to be learned; neither can be taken for granted. Such learning is not automatic, nor is it continuous with growth. Indeed, the visual skills which the experience of art requires will not develop much after puberty except as education takes a hand in the matter—as is evidenced by the kinds of art to which the untrained adult will turn. Self-expression, self-directed, is not enough. Some systematic experience of seeing is necessary, technical processes, such as drawing, being used to channel and direct it. Without mincing words, it may be said that attaining this systematic experience means drill exercises, directed practice in art, to train the eye to see on a plane of aesthetic perception. The junior high school is the place to introduce a positive program—a discipline for seeing, if you will. Youngsters at this age are ready for such a program, and they will need it to develop the visual skills that art requires, both in the creating and in the using of it.

Understandings, appreciations, and skills, then, are the classifications to suggest the objectives here regarded as the most important and clearly valid aims for art education. Whitford²

² William G. Whitford, “Art Education as Euthenics,” *School Review*, XLVI (December, 1938), 745-53.

calls them the functional, appreciative, and creative experiences by means of which “the pupil will learn to *think*, to *enjoy*, and to *act* . . . in matters of art.” To explain fully what is meant by the terms “understandings,” “appreciations,” and “skills,” I shall have to define them more exactly.

Understanding is the knowledge of art—but something more than a knowledge of forms and processes. Art is both form and content. Admittedly, the understanding of art will involve analytical study of aesthetic forms and study of technical processes. There will have to be also the knowledge of art as a culminating expression of art-centered interests in life and, consequently, knowledge of the essential place of art in cultures. The need for this knowledge suggests a study of art in history; for it is in the larger continuities of time that the full import of art as an expression of values in a culture can be understood best. Here we shall have appreciation also. As Prescott suggests, the arts should be used “to bring children into the stream of our culture, to aid them in appreciating how the present has grown out of the past, and to assist them in understanding and appreciating other contemporary cultures.”³

As understanding is the knowledge of art, appreciation is the experience of it. Appreciation means more than enjoyment. It means rather an identi-

³ Daniel Alfred Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, p. 289. A Report of the Committee on the Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1938.

cation by imagination and feeling with the things perceived in art; it is a direct experience of art, an emotionalized understanding of it. Imagination is most important in appreciation, for, as Dewey says: "The work of art . . . is not only the outcome of imagination, but operates imaginatively. . . . What it does is to concentrate and enlarge immediate experience."⁴ Appreciation is never passive. It is an active and an interacting process, a personal involvement in the experience of art. It is more than enjoyment; it is interest; it is insight.

By "skills" are meant, first of all, the perceptual powers to seek out and understand configurations of aesthetic materials—line, form, and color, for example—and then the technical abilities to control the means of artistic expression. What Whitford has called the "creative experience" would seem to apply to this second category because, in elaborating the concept, he lists a number and variety of techniques—"manipulative activities," such as drawing and painting, modeling, carving, weaving, lettering, and the like. But I would emphasize the training of vision, that is, aesthetic perception, before all else. Practice in the technical processes of art may be employed as one means of providing this training, but the method of comparative analysis in the study of aesthetic forms should also be used.

All these activities, technical and analytical, will ultimately converge on the one goal of appreciation, which is

actually the direct and personal experience of art and is thus of the first importance in general education. The practice exercises to develop skills in seeing lay the groundwork for appreciation, and the development of understanding through analysis is also a necessary factor, else appreciation would be only a superficial sensory response to art and of little importance to the educative process. To the extent that there is a real participation in the processes of art and, with this, a genuine intellectual and emotional involvement of the self, then the experience of art can be processed in the mind and learned. As a kind of emotionalized understanding, a readiness for further appreciation, it becomes available thereafter for practical application in the everyday experiences of living.

These applications, in the sense that appreciation is seen as enjoyment, have to do, first of all, with the pleasure in seeing when one knows how to see. It is a pleasure analogous to that of listening to music when one knows what to listen for. As one listens to a melody, so does one look for a contour or a color and sense its quality. These experiences are important goods in life which all have a right to enjoy. But enjoying involves knowing. Art education should provide the knowledge so that everyone may acquire the skills in seeing and in understanding that will enable him to claim his share of these goods.

In a more utilitarian sense, these applications have to do also with the

⁴ John Dewey, *op. cit.*, p. 273.

effect of appreciation on one's environment, in so far as taste can control the quality of the environment. Visual discrimination, what may be called a "disciplined eye," is a factor in choosing most of the things we use—clothes, household furnishings, and so on. When we use these things over a period of time, our continuing appreciation of them depends on whether or not our choices are aesthetically good. Things yield satisfaction in life only as we are interested in them; and, for their interest to be lasting, they must have some meaning for us beyond their immediate and effective use. This meaning will probably emerge on the level of aesthetic interest. Unless things have aesthetic quality, continuing appreciation is meaningless. Thus it can be said that our immediate environment, containing, as it does, the things that we have chosen and kept for ourselves, reflects the kind of appreciation of which we are capable. Our environment is a measure of taste. Economic values aside, it shows what our aesthetic values are. Again, we see the importance of appreciation in general education, especially in the junior high school, where standards of taste can be consciously acquired.

SECONDARY OBJECTIVES

In addition to the understandings, appreciations, and skills which pertain directly to art itself, art education serves also the purposes of general education in providing for the realization of personal and social objectives through the experience of art. The

Educational Policies Commission classifies these objectives as follows: "self-realization" as the personal goal; "human relationships," "economic efficiency," and "civic responsibility" as social goals.⁵ More simply stated, this means the personal development and the socialization of individuals. Such objectives are of primary importance from the standpoint of general education. It is only from the standpoint of art education, where art is employed as one of the several educational means to achieve the objectives, that they may be regarded as secondary. Thus, in terms of method, self-expression in art becomes a means of self-realization, while group projects in art, requiring co-operation of the several participants, become means of socialization. Indirectly such group projects teach some of the democratic principles involved in working together for common ends.

In educational literature these general aims are sometimes even stated as the primary aims of art education, and thus the requirements of individuals and of society are made to take precedence over the requirements of art. Implicit in such a view is the notion that art has no content of its own, that it is only a supplementary method in education. Even art educators themselves, lacking a theoretical discipline of their own comparable to

⁵ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, pp. 45-47. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1938.

that developed for general education, sometimes seem persuaded of this view, more especially when they center all attention on the child. They are divided in their purposes and suffer the consequences of their lack of conviction about art. Any notion of art as merely supplementary to other disciplines is inadmissible. If art belongs in the schools at all, it belongs there, first, because understanding of art, appreciation of art, and ability in art have educational value in their own right and only secondarily because these factors are among the effective means of individual and social development.

Therefore, in admitting self-realization and socialization through art as defensible objectives in art education, I do so with some reservations, first as to their primacy and, again, with regard to certain details of application, as in the case of emphasis on therapy.

The secondary objective here described as "self-realization through art" is, as has been indicated, a valid objective from the standpoint of general education, and when, as self-expression, it operates as a means of self-integration, I am prepared to defend it as a valid objective for art education also. Uncomfortably close to this, however, is the use of self-expression merely as a means of release from frustration. This use I am less prepared to defend (though it cannot be ruled out entirely) because I regard it as therapy rather than art. To emphasize the therapy unduly (and current literature reveals a tendency in this direc-

tion) would be, in my opinion, a distortion and misuse of art in education.

The problem for art education, as I see it, is how to resolve these inner tensions and emotional disorders in the order-producing experience of art. It is not just getting rid of them, but expressing them, making something out of them, that concerns art education; for their expression in outward forms means that they will have to be processed and developed in conformation with such order as the particular kinds of art may require. Further, it is through compliance with such demands for order in art that the individual learns to command order in himself. Inner confusion is clarified in the process of expressing it in outward forms. Thus the experience of art becomes a means of personal integration—a particularly important aspect for the junior high school, where the ambivalence of early adolescence presents such urgent need for self-ordering disciplines.

The secondary objective here characterized as "socialization through art" appears at first glance less convincing as a proper use of art, even in general education, partly because the experience of art is so pre-eminently a personal matter (no one else can experience it for you) and also because the problem of human relationships is more often identified in schools with the social studies. It may, however, be regarded as a valid objective for art education because ultimately even personal values must be proved in a social context. Personality exists be-

tween persons; it cannot exist in isolation; and, while the experience of art is a personal one, it is an experience that others can have also. Thus in art there is a basis of common interest, and, in school, art provides another means of socialization.

The concomitant social learnings through the study of art can be great because the experience of art is, in itself, an exercise in sensitivity, a special kind of awareness to quality and value. Thus a common experience of art, as in school, makes young people sensitive to one another also in a special kind of way; they learn to appreciate one another. This result is plainly apparent in the common experience of music, for example, in choral singing, or in play production, where the fullest co-operation is demanded by the very nature of the art. It is less apparent in the studio arts of drawing and painting, but a personal appreciation is present here also, especially during early adolescence at the junior high school level. This period is a time of increasing personal and social awareness on the part of boys and girls, and any experience that permits a genuinely personal expression becomes a means of appraising quality and value in one another.

Art is a nonverbal expression of emotional experience; it gives form to feeling; it is thus a symbolic means of communicating personal values; it conveys one's personality to others and permits a social expression of personality. But the argument cannot be pressed too far. The method of

socialization through art is too subtle and indirect. To extract any real educational value from it will require imaginative and sympathetic teaching over and above the demands of art. With boys and girls at this age the developmental task of personal and social adjustment to one another suddenly becomes an urgent and necessary and wholly absorbing one, intensified for most of them by the onset of puberty and the heightened sense of personal awareness to one's self and to others that accompanies this physiological change. They are hypersensitive, and it seems only natural, therefore, that they should turn to the nonverbal language of art as a welcome means of giving expression to their reciprocal thoughts and feelings. In this critical period the refining influence of art on their developing personalities, provided their experience of it is genuine, can be of importance.

In the literature of general education this line of reasoning is not drawn so fine. There it is enough to say that expression is not merely personal, but interpersonal, and this statement is as true of expression in art as of expression in any other medium. Eventually expression has to be socialized. A primary concern of the school is, of course, the socialization of youth, and in the junior high school what may be called the interpersonal phase of this process becomes the chief preoccupation of most boys and girls. The school tries to help them by providing a more congenial setting than the formal

atmosphere of the classroom allows, in clubrooms, recreation halls, gymnasiums, and playgrounds, where the atmosphere is friendly and the expression of mutual interests can be relatively spontaneous and free.

An atmosphere of work helps also, and it is just as important. Thus the junior high school usually has a shop for industrial arts, a kitchen for household arts, and an art room. The art room is a workroom, a place for making things, where the workers, the pupils of both sexes, can move about rather freely and can work individually or together, according to the nature of the work to be done. Because of this freedom, the art room serves as an informal laboratory of social experimentation. This result is apparent whether considered from the standpoint of the school or from that of the boys and girls, who, working together, learn how to get along with one another on a basis of equality between the sexes, where each person is valued for the work he does. In the collaboration of groups of boys and girls on mural projects or in the staging of plays, the constructive experience of art and concomitant social learnings may be equally important; but, even in the work that children do individually, the process of socialization goes on because the atmosphere of the art room encourages it.

The objectives, or, rather, the

goals, here outlined for art education—(1) understanding and appreciation of art and skills in art and (2) personal and social development through art—are, of course, not confined to the junior high school area alone. Stated completely in terms also of the behaviors—the particular learning experiences that will serve to achieve these goals—they become junior high school objectives in art because not only the content but the methods employed are determined by the conditions and the needs of education on this level as distinct from any other. In order to understand fully these special conditions and needs, it would be necessary to examine, in turn, the needs of society, the needs of the individual, and the nature of early adolescence and to consider also the psychology of learning, the philosophy of education, and the testimony of experts in the field. All these should be considered for their relation to the special problem of art education at the junior high school level. We shall find that what makes this moment so critical in art education comes largely from a tendency in modern theory to lose sight of the subject itself as a focus of attention and study. If art belongs in the schools, the schools should not fail to teach art; and, to teach art, they must distinguish the primary and secondary goals for art in general education.

AN EXPERIMENT IN GUIDANCE

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DURING the past few years counselors have been giving increasing attention to the field of guidance. Volumes have been written on the various kinds of guidance and the most successful techniques. We have long been aware of the need and the value of curriculum guidance. We have shared the responsibility of helping pupils recognize the importance of wise choices for leisure-time activities. We have spent much school time and many after-school hours in compiling and imparting information about occupations and in counseling with students that they might make wise decisions regarding vocational plans. Not until this semester, however, did we as a school incorporate in our program a specific plan for guidance in manners.

Having no recorded precedent to follow, the plans evolved as various teachers and groups of pupils became interested and set to work. The campaign really started in the lunchroom. Pupils were careless. They left paper and ice-cream envelopes on the floor; dropped candy wrappers under the tables; and left crumbs from their lunches on the tables. All of this so greatly detracted from the appearance of our dining-room that it was decided to "clean up."

The first step in the school project was planned by the lunchroom monitors and advisers who supervise the three daily lunch periods. The administrative routine of seating, taking attendance, and other details was revised, and every possible means was used to give a physical and psychological setting which would be an influence toward mannerly behavior during the lunch hour. An item in the psychological setting is a feature of the noon hour that has been observed in Amos Hiatt for several years. At the beginning of every lunch period there is a quiet moment, indicated by the playing of chimes. When the chimes play, every person observes the signal. Boys and girls at the tables bow their heads; those who may be in the lunch lines or walking across the room stop and are silent; no serving is done at the counter. For that brief moment every head is bowed, every tongue is silent, in cafeteria and kitchen. Thus the chimes—at first, the prelude to the lunch period; now, one of the memories and traditions of the school—contribute to make a desirable situation for beginning the lunch period.

As improvement became noticeable in the lunchroom, the idea spread. The student council became interested

in the project and helped formulate plans for the entire school. These plans were discussed in home rooms, and presently two groups, one of boys and the other of girls, were working on assembly programs. For several days they made observations about the building, taking notes of omissions in courtesy, ignorance of correct usage—in short, any violation of good manners that came to their attention.

The trio that blocked traffic in the halls, the boy who dashed into the office and let the door close in the face of his teacher, the girls who “whoo-whooed” to their pals across the corridor—all were guilty, and their social lapses were entered on the growing lists of misdemeanors in manners.

These observations, elaborated and classified, became the basis of the scripts for the two assemblies. The general plan followed in both programs was, first, to illustrate the wrong way and then emphasize the correct way. Conversation, pantomime, and dramatization were used in presenting the ideas.

The boys, for example, illustrated graphically the art of walking and standing. The opening scene presented a clinic for boys who humped and slouched as they walked. The instructions in physical-education classes had a practical carry-over when the boys on the stage showed correct posture, using a meter stick and a mirror to emphasize the lesson in poise that they were presenting. After the assembly one lad remarked, “It sure shows a fella’ up if he ain’t standin’ right.” A second scene was devoted to the “do’s

and don’t’s” of hall conduct. The big “arm-in-arm guys” who amble down the hall blocking ordinary speed in traffic, then round the last corner and slide into the classroom on the fringe of the tardy bell, were shown in true perspective—and they did not appear so clever and smart behind the footlights.

The girls in their assembly also had two scenes, the first showing the wrong behavior, the second the correct manners, for the lunchroom and the home. They came on the stage laughing and giggling, took out their gum, and stuck it under the table. They sat carelessly, with elbows on the table; they slouched, toyed with the silver, and finally overturned a glass of water. One or two whispered, and another made a few uncomplimentary remarks about a new girl.

In striking contrast was the next scene. The girls came in gay and chatting but were not unduly noisy; they seated themselves properly, with feet on the floor; and all observed the niceties of table etiquette. When Nancy began in teen-age fashion to tell how queer Sally acted and to imitate her walk, Charlotte promptly interjected, “Why, really, I think Sally’s tops. I’ve been coming to school with her every day and she’s really swell. You should get acquainted with her. I know you’d like her.”

Two later scenes showing courtesy in the home were well worked out. Patty, rushing in from school, left her friend standing awkwardly in the hall without introducing her to mother. Then to mother’s inquiry, “Don’t you

think you should wear a hat since it's turned so cold?" Patty snapped, "I don't care how cold it is. I'm sure not wearing one. Nobody else does."

Then came the contrast. Patty entered, greeted her mother, introduced her friend, and exclaimed over the new collar that mother had just finished for her sport dress. It was a fine expression of family cordiality and appreciation for each other. The girls also included some "musts" in manners for halls, auditorium, and classrooms. They showed the wrong and the right way of receiving boy friends and starting on a date and portrayed the effect of loud, shrill voices versus modulated tones. Their playlet on appropriate hairdress for school was described as follows in a conversation overheard in the hall: "You see, some of the girls wanted to wear their heads tied up in a scarf to keep their hair pretty for a date. But when they found out the boys made fun of them and it really wasn't the smart thing—well, they just didn't do it any more."

Step by step, our project grew and expanded, the plan being to give special emphasis to some one area of conduct each week. Since the plan had originated in the reorganization of the lunchroom, attention the first week centered about lunchroom conduct. The theme for the second week was assembly conduct and courtesy; the next was directed to behavior in the classroom; and finally came general suggestions for social approval.

The principal gave support to the movement by devoting space, sometimes as much as half a page, in the

weekly bulletin to the "Manners Topic of the Week." Sometimes he included correct rules to follow, appropriate quotations, challenging suggestions—anything to help in making the school "courtesy conscious." The following lines are taken at random from the bulletins of those weeks:

Life is not so short but that there is always time for courtesy.—EMERSON.

In the lunchroom, a well-mannered student will be quiet and orderly. Loud conduct at the table is evidence of bad manners.

Dashing to the candy counter after the silent moment indicates a childish eagerness for sweets unbecoming to a junior high school boy or girl.

It is not good taste to let it be known that you do not wish to sit beside certain persons or that you wish to sit only beside a certain person.

Well-mannered pupils do not manicure fingernails, comb hair, or apply cosmetics in classrooms or corridors.

Associate yourself with men of good quality if you esteem your reputation.—GEORGE WASHINGTON.

The climax to the campaign came in the form of a color film on good manners designed to teach charm, poise, and social etiquette in an entertaining but not didactic manner. To our gratification, the movie re-emphasized many of the questions in manners and in boy-girl relationships which we had included in our program and, in addition, presented new areas in social contacts. Among the latter were scenes in street and office etiquette and in correct automobile etiquette, showing how girls wait for boys to open car doors, as well as other doors. Significant, too, were the

scenes showing the requisites for being a correct, charming guest at hotel or other formal dinners or formal dances. Since no other schools in the city had seen the movie, we made it a real occasion and invited representatives from each one to preview it at Amos Hiatt.

This, outlined in brief, was our experiment in guidance in the field of social courtesies. Growing out of an everyday activity in our school life, it early enlisted the interest of the student council and finally involved every home room and classroom, every pupil and every teacher. The principles that we had tried to incorporate in the lives of our students were not new, but we attempted a different approach. There was no set of rules for everyone to follow by clock schedule; the aim was, rather, to make every individual conscious that there is an acceptable social behavior.

In classrooms acceptable behavior included such simple and common rules as being in place when the bell rings, of speaking so that all can hear and understand, of respecting the rights of others whether listening or reciting. In assemblies it meant following the directions of the ushers in charge, giving courteous attention to the speaker or the performers, and showing appreciation of entertainment without evidence of rudeness. Corridor conduct emphasized again the accepted rules of traffic: no running, no collecting in groups or twinning arm-in-arm foursomes.

We had relearned that the very way one sits or walks or stands shows culture or the lack of it, that the familiar childhood admonition to "stand tall" is just as applicable to youths as to adults, and that chins in and chests up will do much to give aristocratic bearing.

As the days passed, every member of the school was inoculated with the virus of courtesy. In many cases it had direct curative value, but, as always, some were immune. Throughout, we strove to reach that state of attainment where it would be popular to respect regulations and smart to obey the rules of the game. By practice and precept the campaign in general school manners had extended over some weeks. Conspicuous behavior lost some of its glamour, and courtesy in manners and tone became more the approved conduct of the group.

As we came to evaluate, we felt our program had been all-inclusive. We had tried to carry the idea of politeness and consideration for others into every activity of the school. Many of the values were those intangibles in human relationships—difficult to explain, perhaps, but easily recognized by the discerning—which tend to make life rich and meaningful. Perhaps the greatest value of the entire six weeks was that we had learned to look our best, to talk well, and to play fair; and, after all, that is just practicing courtesy and good manners every day. It was our own experience in trying to live together pleasantly.

SCHOOL LIBRARIANS: CLERKS OR TEACHERS?

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TO THE school librarian, who is usually responsible for the complete handling of a book from order blank to wastebasket, the actual, physical book-keeping often looms so large as to distort her entire viewpoint. A book cannot be circulated until it has undergone its baptism of book-keeping. If the librarian cannot get at the task because she has more pressing duties in the reading-room, the book collects dust. If she feels a compulsion toward tidiness, then she must retreat into the workroom, when she should be at the desk. Should the conflict between workroom and reading-room become acute, it may drive her subconsciously into a distaste for ordering books at all—or, more fatally, into a resentment against serving her clients, whose need it is that drives her into this conflict.

THE PROPER WORK OF THE LIBRARIAN

Unhappy as is such a frame of mind, it is the one that all too often lies behind the school librarian's position in the classic controversy over whether the library is to be used as a study hall. How can she get her work done if she has to supervise a

roomful of students? The better question would be: Where lies the proper work of the librarian? Surely it is not to be found in the workroom. Whatever the amount of time spent in learning book-keeping routines during the customary year of library training, it is probably too much as far as the school librarian is concerned. The school librarian needs most of all to know how to make use of unskilled assistants. A few student helpers can free a librarian almost entirely from office drudgery if she is not intolerant of occasional errors and does not go white when confronted with news of a missing book.

Nor is the librarian's proper work, of course, that of the study-hall supervisor. But she can, if she knows what her proper work is, use the study hall, if she must, to advance that work. She should find a roomful of students not a charge but a challenge; for her proper work is to bring books and students together. The books, she has. How is she to get the students? We might set up as the chief of the criteria by which to judge a school librarian, not the number of books in the library, nor the orderliness of their shelving, nor the beauty of her flower arrangements, but the way in

which she brings in users and borrowers of books.

Do most of the students who use the library, after the librarian has fought the battle through and has emancipated herself from the study hall as such, come instead from neighboring study halls? Has the librarian signed in and signed out the lively students who seek freer breathing in a larger room, the friendly ones who have a whispering date, the magazine-lookers, the encyclopedia-copiers, the "desk hounds," the boys who want another book by Will James although they have read all his books twice over, the girls who want a "good" book but one not too thick for the report that is due tomorrow, the children who "can't study in the study hall"?

How many students come before and after the school day? How many of them come in groups from classes? How many come as classes? How many come for biology and home economics and Latin and world history, as well as for English?

How many teachers come? And why? To use the telephone? To check out classroom lists? To borrow for their private use? To confer on the right book for Clarice or Henry? To plan an hour next week in research reading? To make out orders? To arrange for an exhibit?

Where do the library's users and borrowers come from—and why? That is indeed the test question. Does the school librarian seek to free herself from study-hall supervision because

she knows that, despite her best efforts there, book and student can best be brought together when they meet *on purpose*—and not, at least not entirely, by accident.

If her objection to the regular library-study hall is not that she cannot get any work done when she has a roomful of students but that she cannot do her work as well when the students are there for no good reason, then she should be freed of the study hall, certainly—not to retreat to the workroom, but to welcome the right students under the right circumstances.

Probably the librarian with a mission, the one who refuses to remain a book-keeper, does not have to worry over being assigned a study hall. If she has made herself indispensable to the proper conduct of all classes in the school, if the teachers have found that they cannot get along without her professional services in the reading-room and among their students, then the teachers will have combined to protect their common interest in reserving the space that they will need in the library. It is when teachers see an empty or half-empty room as an alternative to a study hall that they do not object. Better that books have students near them, whatever the circumstances, than that books be left alone.

TEACHING TEACHERS IS THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN'S MAIN CHALLENGE

Here, indeed, is the great challenge to the school librarian today: to teach

the teachers how to use the library. In the past, most of the exhortation has been to teach the student how to use the library. That task still is primary. Inspire the student, yes; fire him with a love of good books; catch him young, coax him, and wheedle him; keep a book in his hand; ring him in with good books—and the librarian has done the job. But the student must first be caught, and, in order to catch him, the librarian must catch his teacher.

In the elementary schools that have central libraries (and there are far too few of these), the librarian gets a firm and early hold on the pupil. The teacher recognizes that her complete responsibility for the child includes providing him with experience in the library. Her class goes to the library regularly. In lively schools, even the first-graders visit the library, to toddle off with *Make Way for Ducklings* by Robert McCloskey or *Madeline* by Ludwig Bemelmans.

However, in the departmentalized secondary school, too often the librarian depends either upon her own and surrounding study halls or upon assigned study to bring the student to her. Much can be done, even so; but so much more can be done with the right students under the right circumstances, with students who come to the library *on purpose* and *with their teacher*.

Getting the teachers to bring their students to the library is often no small task. There are teachers, sadly enough, who seem scarcely to be aware

of what the invention of printing has brought mankind, so closely do they hold to their single textbooks, so completely do they ignore all that might bolster and enlarge and enrich their work. From this group we may largely exclude the teachers of English. They use the library—within the limits of their experience. That they might use it more than they do if they were properly guided is evident in the phenomenal development during the past ten years of individual classroom libraries. The English teachers are not to blame if, wanting to bring book and student together, they are so misguided or *unguided* as to think that the incomplete and soon exhausted private library is the answer. In truth, the growth of the classroom library, not as an adjunct to the central library, but as a kind of substitute for it, is the most telling of all indictments today against the lack of leadership on the part of the professional school librarian. The right use of a central library would make a classroom substitute unnecessary.

Librarians must be leaders, teachers of teachers, if they want to bring the right students to their libraries under the right circumstances. They must teach the teachers how to use the library. They must conceive of their role as that of guide as well as servant. The passive, semi-clerical book-keeper must retire to the background; the good librarian will stand at the door, ready to plan and direct, an active leader, a teacher, not merely a clerk. She may even open the door,

walk down the hall, and enter a classroom!

First of all, the librarian studies the teacher's needs. As in all guidance, the first requirement is that rapport or a bond of sympathy and understanding be reached between "client" and "counselor." The librarian comes to know the teacher, what he believes about teaching and how he regards books, what he might be able to use and how he might be helped to use it. The librarian seizes every opportunity to become better acquainted with all the teachers, not merely with those with whom she eats lunch or plays bridge.

Students who come from a particular teacher with a problem can often open up the opportunity for learning more about the teacher's viewpoint. Tom does not quite understand what he is supposed to do about his report for the class in beginning agriculture. He asks the librarian about it. She helps him as she can. Then perhaps she writes Mr. Jackson a note suggesting that she would be glad to prepare a list of books on the unit that the class is studying. Perhaps, instead, she drops in to see Mr. Jackson, if she can, or makes it a point to discuss the situation briefly at noon or at the next faculty meeting. She establishes, in short, a common interest upon which, as time goes by, she can build. She identifies herself as a professional adviser in a field where Mr. Jackson may need advice.

Every counselor knows the value of keeping records about the client.

Is there any reason why the librarian should not also keep a guidance file, so to speak, on the teachers with whom she works? Is there any reason to think that over a period of time she cannot build up the habit, too, of regular conferences with teachers on their needs?

Second, the librarian offers direct personal services to the teacher. On the basis of her knowledge of them, the librarian keeps always in mind the immediate personal and professional services that she can offer individual teachers. She reads the announcements of new books with a set of multiple eyes, judging what might be of interest to Miss Wilkins and Mr. Blair and Mrs. Hempstead. She sends them notes about new books, when she finds time, or mentions new publications to them when next they meet. Every book that comes in is examined in terms of its interest for the teachers as she has come to know them, even though the book may not be directly in the field of a particular teacher's work.

The same sort of scrutiny is given the professional magazines which, she sees to it, are included in the school-library budget. Of course she has to know enough about the teachers' interests and needs to make direct choices. A bulletin in general terms issued from library headquarters may be a service for her to offer if she has the time, but the individual notes and personal suggestions are the ones that will count, not merely to improve her relations with teach-

ers, but to establish her possession of professional insight.

As she advances in her understanding and strengthens confidence in her abilities, she may even go so far as to offer tentative pre-listings for book orders or independently contrived bibliographies for courses or for departments. The number of services that she has to give will be limited only by her resourcefulness and the time that she has at her disposal. We are assuming, naturally, that she has relinquished almost entirely her former book-keeping duties.

Third, the librarian comes to stand for books in the school. Whenever a formal occasion offers the opportunity, the librarian talks to teachers about the use of books. A faculty meeting means to the librarian an opportunity to comment briefly upon the new materials that the library has received. A faculty magazine offers her the opportunity to review a significant book. At departmental meetings, she seeks approval for orders or asks group advice on the purchase of reference materials. News that a committee is to consider revision of the tenth-grade course in social studies sends her to the department chairman to inquire whether she may listen in on the discussion.

In fact, the librarian's professional status depends in large part upon the success of an aggressive public-relations program. If teachers think of her only when they want to locate something that they already know about, she remains a clerk, often a

very competent one, it is true, but a person of limited usefulness. If teachers instead think of her at once when they are puzzled in the preliminary planning of their work, then she becomes in truth a participant in the creative life of the school. She must, without becoming a busybody, represent the specialized service of the professional if she is to be enabled to use all her talents and training.

Fourth, the librarian suggests ways in which the teacher can make greater use of library facilities during class time. This advice does not come so abruptly as to seem a comment upon the teacher's good sense or competence. It follows necessarily upon the mutual respect developed between teacher and librarian. It is the great service that the librarian has to offer. In so far as she succeeds in incorporating the library into the resources of the classroom, just so far has the school librarian proved herself professional.

Even here, she need not proceed too hesitantly in offering suggestions of her extended services. A French teacher, for example, may soon be ready to welcome an invitation to bring her students in one day to see a display of translations or an exhibit of reproductions of the Impressionists. A teacher of American history may take readily to the idea of accompanying his class to the library to receive copies of a list of biographies of outstanding figures in the period about which the students are studying, to hear the books commented

upon briefly, and to spend the remainder of the hour browsing among the books. A teacher of biology may agree at once to have his students taught a library lesson in the use of reference materials.

In time, the persistent librarian builds up so soundly the idea of making services available to the right students under the right circumstances that for the teacher to bring the class to the library for an hour loses its novelty and becomes instead a customary, indeed an essential, part of their learning experience. The problem, then, is for the librarian to reserve table space and time for the competing classes; no longer does she need to complain because study halls are given her.

Fifth and finally, the librarian even emerges from the library, as has been hinted, to step down the hall into a classroom. Students are beginning a new unit of work on textiles. They would like to have the librarian present as they plan because they know that she can help them. A class in vocations wants her advice on their reading. An English class is interested in finding out whether the library has books enough on travel to make a three-weeks project. A chemistry class solicits her help in initiating a research problem on uses of the newer plastics.

The school librarian, in such instances, enters the classroom as a

specialist, as a "resource person," in the peculiar current jargon. She goes in her professional capacity to advise and to teach. As she subordinates her clerical duties and delegates them to student helpers, as she assumes the rightful position of teacher instead of clerk, as teacher of teachers as well as of students, the school librarian becomes a creative force in the school, freeing herself not only from the humiliation and frustration that plague the trained worker whose training is held of little value but also for the fullest kind of outpouring of all the services of which as an individual she may find herself capable.

LIBRARIAN'S STATUS IN HER OWN HANDS

Sympathetic, then, though we may be to the chronic complaints of the trained school librarian who finds herself reduced to clerical status, we must hold that her professional services can prove their value only as the librarian herself practices those services. If she continues to complain and to wait, trusting for some revelation that will clear the scene and instal her in her rightful glory, she will wait and complain for many a long day. She has already. She must let first things come first, build up the professional services, and let dwindle the clerical and *become* a teacher instead of a clerk. Becoming is truly the method of being.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

LEONARD V. KOOS AND AMY F. OWENS
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THE following list of selected and annotated references is the first in the fourteenth annual cycle of twenty lists comprehending almost the whole area of education, which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The sequence within the cycle remains the same as in previous years.

As in all previous lists, the term "instruction" comprehends curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement. The vertical scope of secondary education is assumed to extend through junior high school, senior high school, and junior college.

To compilers of lists in this area over the years, a few observations seem warranted. The first of these is that the total body of literature on curriculum proper at the secondary-school level published during the past year is not impressive. Few major studies are under way, and relatively few publications of long-time import have emerged. One may devoutly hope for a postwar revival in this

area. At the same time, literature in the area designated as "methods of teaching" has been more extensive than usual. The increment is owing to greater numbers of writings on two subjects, namely, the applicability to our schools of "G.I. methods" and the use of audio-visual aids with some accompanying increase on the use of radio. In all probability the first of these two emphases will be a receding tide, but the second is destined to remain for some years. In passing, a certain inappropriateness in including materials dealing with audio-visual aids and radio under "methods" must be admitted, since, obviously, these instrumentalities involve both curriculum and procedures.

CURRICULUM¹

1. *Adjustments for the Secondary School*.
Bulletin of the National Association

¹ See also Items 509 (French), 513 (*The Junior High School in California Today*) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1945, number of the *School Review*; Items 559 (Spears), and 569 (Diederich) in the November, 1945, number; and Item 618 (*General Education in a Free Society*) in the December, 1945, number of the same journal; Item 339 (*American Education in the Postwar Period: Curriculum Recon-*

of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIX, No. 129. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1945. Pp. 110.

Includes "articles on proposed adjustments in the curriculum and administration of the secondary school necessitated by the returning veteran and the impact of the war on the secondary schools."

2. ALBERTY, HAROLD. "Reorganizing the Junior High School Curriculum," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), 17-28.

Reports on the interests, problems, and needs of the early adolescent, their implications for the curriculum, the setting-up of the core program, and its relationship to other aspects of the program.

3. ARISMAN, KENNETH; RIMMER, CLARA; SCHMIDT, MILDRED; and WILLIS, MARGARET. "Promoting Democracy in the Junior High School Years," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), 29-39.

Describes the junior high school of the University School of Ohio State University, including its philosophy, pupils' needs, the curriculum framework, emphases of democratic values, the core program, mathematics, arts, physical education, service organizations and special-interest groups, guidance, and the curriculum-development program.

4. BATES, HAROLD S. "Tailored To Fit," *Progressive Education*, XXII (January, 1945), 8-10, 38.

Tells how Norwood, Ohio, revised its school curriculum to meet specific community needs.

struction) in the September, 1945, number of the *Elementary School Journal*. Item 639 (Russell) in the December, 1945, number of the *School Review* contains the following discussions of importance for this list: John W. Harbeson, "Postwar Planning in the Junior College," pp. 74-86, and Leland L. Medsker, "Terminal Education in the Postwar Period," pp. 140-55.

5. BERMAN, SIMON L. "Post-war Secondary School Education," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVII (January, 1945), 20-30.

Examines the present deficiencies in our educational system and suggests the implications for postwar secondary-school education.

6. BLOCH, PAUL. "A School Grows in Brooklyn," *Magazine Digest*, XXIX (November, 1944), 75-77.

Explains a two-year experimental curriculum in the Midwood High School, Brooklyn, New York.

7. BOBBITT, FRANKLIN. "The Postwar Curriculum: The Functional versus the Academic Plan," *School Review*, LIII (February, 1945), 77-84.

Presents the basic characteristics of two opposing conceptions of education, the functional and the academic. Generic as to school level.

8. BOBBITT, FRANKLIN. "The Postwar Curriculum: The Superiority of the Functional Plan," *School Review*, LIII (March, 1945), 148-53.

Summarizes the areas of education best understood, the carelessly managed and backward areas, and suggests a combination of the functional and the academic plans in the postwar curriculum.

9. BOODISH, H. "Changing Concepts in Secondary Education," *School Review*, LIII (June, 1945), 353-59.

Reviews criticisms of high-school offerings, urges a program suitable for all youth, and gives special attention to the value and implementation of a part-time work program.

10. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "Proposal for a Curriculum Commission," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (May, 1945), 79-90.

Proposes a curriculum commission in answer to the question of who shall develop the new program for the secondary school and tells what the commission should do and how funds for it could be secured.

11. "California's Educational Offering for the Returned Veteran," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIX (December, 1944), 406-36.

A symposium on the plans that are being laid and the progress that had been made by the end of 1944, on the comments about their needs made by veterans who already have returned, on the projected state program, on the facilities available, and on the programs of individual schools and systems throughout the state.

12. DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "General Objectives of Education," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (April, 1945), 436-43.

Lists objectives emerging from "elements of a good life" and considers what should be taught to achieve them.

13. DIXON, HENRY ALDOUS. *The Organization and Development of Terminal Occupational Curricula in Selected Junior Colleges*. Prepared for the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Ogden, Utah: Weber College, 1944. Pp. x+182.

Contains sections on "The Problem," "Procedures in Organizing and Developing Terminal Occupational Curricula in Selected Junior Colleges," "Curriculum Procedures in Terminal Education at Weber College," and "Summary and Recommendations."

14. *General Aspects of Instruction: Learning, Teaching, and the Curriculum*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XV, No. 3. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1945. Pp. 193-268. A review of the literature for the three-year period ending December, 1944, including "all those studies that make a contribution to education whether they were made in a military camp, in a scientific laboratory, in a classroom, or in a library."

15. GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I. "Experiences in Formulating a Philosophy of Education," *School Review*, LII (October, 1944), 477-83.

A report of the experiences of the faculty of the South Side High School in Newark, New

Jersey, in formulating a philosophy of education in advance of the coming of a committee from the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards.

16. *Issues concerning the Secondary School Curriculum: A Study Manual*. Iowa Secondary School Cooperative Curriculum Program, Vol. I. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction, 1945. Pp. 180.

Following an introductory chapter, the discussion in this manual centers in numerous "issues" concerning content and organization and administration of the curriculum and instructional procedures. It was prepared for the Central Planning Committee of the Cooperative Curriculum Program in Iowa.

17. KEMP, WILLIAM W., and HILL, MERTON E. "The Public Junior College as Community College," *Education and Society*, pp. 126-47. By Members of the Faculties of the University of California. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1944.

A brief review of the rapid growth of junior colleges is followed by a description of recent developments in their programs, with emphases on terminal offerings and courses suitable for adults.

18. LAWSON, DOUGLAS E. "Purposes Governing Curriculum Changes in City School Systems," *School Review*, LII (November, 1944), 552-56.

Presents a tabulation, by frequency, of purposes governing changes in the curriculum in ten large city school systems since 1836, with some comparison for early and later portions of the full period.

19. LEIMAN, HAROLD I. "An Instructional Program for the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (May, 1945), 74-78.

Suggests an outline for an instructional program for Grades IX-XII and summarizes high lights of the program.

Boston University
School of Education
Library

20. McGRATH, EARL J. "The Junior College of the Future," *Junior College Journal*, XV (February, 1945), 260-68.
Predicts postwar adjustments and changes in junior colleges. Includes attention to the curriculum.
21. RICE, T. D. "Secondary Curriculum Study in Michigan," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIX (October, 1944), 321-26.
Reports on the progress attained by Michigan's fifty-four "co-operating schools," including some of the changes and projects recommended by the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum.
22. RYAN, H. H. "Adaptation of the Junior High School Program to the Interests and Abilities of the Students," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), 47-52.
Considers the exploratory function of the junior high school and the adaptation in its program to student interests, special aptitudes, and abilities.
23. SMITH, NORVILLE L. "The Core Program," *Social Studies*, XXXVI (April, 1945), 164-68.
Exposition of a core program, including two charts, "A Four-Block Core Setup" and "An Outlined Teacher-Pupil Schedule for a Core Program."
24. *Temporary Guides for the Junior High School Curriculum*. Prepared by Committees of Teachers in the State Curriculum Improvement Program. Instructional Service Bulletin No. 14. Olympia, Washington: Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1944. Pp. 116.
Following "Suggestions for a Junior High School Program," summarizes fundamental curriculum guides to junior high school teachers. All main subject areas are included in the treatment.
25. TYLER, HARRY E. "A Practical Program for Postwar Planning," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIX (November, 1944), 380-81.
Describes preliminary steps taken by the Santa Maria Union High School and Junior College in planning its postwar curricular offering.
26. WHITE, RAYMOND H. "Responsibility of the School Administrator for Curriculum Development," *Educational Planning for Peace*, pp. 147-53. Schoolmen's Week Proceedings, March 22-25, 1944. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. XLIV, No. 32. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1944.
Discusses the role of the school administrator in organizing and guiding curriculum-development programs and in using curriculum-workshop staffs, consultants, directors of curriculum, or state leadership in various school systems.
27. WILLIAMS, L. A., and SMITH, W. A. "High Schools Facing the Needs of Youth," *Education and Society*, pp. 111-25. By Members of the Faculties of the University of California. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1944.
Against a background of historical development of high schools in California, this paper concludes that the schools are extending opportunities for general education, making these opportunities meaningful to youth, and utilizing community resources and agencies concerned with youth.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION²

28. ABERNETHY, THOMAS J. "A High-School Principal's View of Army Methods," *School Review*, LIII (March, 1945), 142-47.

Defines the purpose of army training, the content and methods of instruction, reasons

² See also Item 392 (Burton) in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1945, number of the *School Review*, Item 351 (Long) in the September, 1945, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Item 465 (Gorman) in the October, 1945, number of the same journal.

for the success of the army training method, and its application to secondary-school instruction.

29. BRINKMAN, A. R. "Military Training and Secondary Education: A Comparative Study," *Educational Forum*, IX (January, 1945), 231-36.
Compares teaching methods in military training and in secondary schools and draws an inference of greater effectiveness of the former.
30. BRYAN, ROY C. *The Evaluation of Student Reactions to Teaching Procedures*. Bulletin of the Graduate Division, Western Michigan College. Kalamazoo, Michigan: Graduate Division, Western Michigan College of Education, 1945. Pp. x+30+forms.
Summarizes the use of a student-opinion questionnaire in evaluating methods of junior and senior high school teachers in order to improve instruction.
31. CARPENTER, ALLEN. "The Promise of Education: A Critical Examination of G.I. Education," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVII (March, 1945), 5-10.
A consideration of army methods of teaching compared with public-school methods.
32. COMMITTEE TO STUDY ARMY TRAINING METHODS AND PROCEDURES. "Training in the Armed Forces: Implications for Postwar Education," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (December, 1944), 10-29.
Summarizes the origin and purpose of the Committee To Study Army Training Methods and Procedures (appointed by the superintendent of schools in New York City), outstanding features of the army instructional program, and implications and recommendations for the proposed technical institutes and other forms of postwar education.
33. DALE, EDGAR. "Can Schools Really Teach the G.I. Way?" *News Letter*, X (February, 1945), 1-4.
Compares army methods of teaching with the civilian teaching program on the basis of selection and prestige, the curriculum, teaching tools, intelligent use of specialists, clarifying purposes, and individualized instruction.
34. DALE, EDGAR, and RATHS, LOUIS. "Discussion in the Secondary School," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXIV (January 17, 1945), 1-6.
Considers the problem of securing educative discussion, with special reference to efforts to improve discussion in high schools of Euclid and Akron, Ohio.
35. FINDLAY, BRUCE ALLYN. *Audio-visual "Tools" That TEACH for "Keeps."* School Publication No. 395. Los Angeles, California: Office of the Superintendent, Los Angeles City Schools, 1944. Pp. 72.
A pictorial and effective exposition of audio-visual aids usable by teachers.
36. HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR. "What the Schools Can Learn from the Army's Films," *Educational Outlook*, XIX (March, 1945), 97-106.
Mentions lessons derived from the Army's film program which may be applied to films for schools, colleges, and adult-education groups.
37. HOOVER, F. W. "Education, 1940 Model or G.I. Style?" *Educational Forum*, IX (March, 1945), 349-54.
Presents four elements of G.I. teaching techniques, stresses immediate values of that learning as compared with the deferred values of learning in secondary schools, and discusses the possibilities of stepped-up teaching for public education.
38. LEVENSON, WILLIAM B. *Teaching through Radio*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1945. Pp. viii+474.
A comprehensive treatise on the growth, potentialities, and use of radio in schools.
39. *Motion Pictures for Postwar Education*. Prepared by the Commission on Motion Pictures in Education. American Coun-

cil on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series I—Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 21. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. vi+24.

Discusses objectives for postwar education, the role and types of teaching films, production of these films, and the potentialities of films in overcoming illiteracy, ignorance, and other barriers to democracy. Generic as to school level.

40. MOYANO, SYLVIA M. "We Put Movies to Work," *Educational Screen*, XXIV (March, 1945), 100-101.

How the Flower Technical High School of Chicago handles its extensive visual program through all-girl committees.

41. ROBERTS, ALVIN B. "Trends in Audio-visual Instruction in Illinois," *Educational Screen*, XXIV (May and June, 1945), 185-87, 228-29, 237.

Findings of a questionnaire survey of facilities, administration, and trends in audio-visual education in the schools of Illinois.

42. ROBERTS, ALVIN B. "Audio-visual Education in the Post-war Period," *Educational Screen*, XXIV (September and October, 1945), 283-86, 341-45.

Findings of the survey represented in Item 41 (Roberts) as they concern school systems throughout the country.

43. SEATON, HELEN HARDT. *A Measure for Audio-visual Programs in Schools*. Prepared for the Committee on Visual Aids in Education. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series II—Motion Pictures in Education, No. 8. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. 42.

Presents well-considered criteria and recommendations for audio-visual programs in the schools.

44. SIMONDS, CHARLES A. "Too Much Home Study in the Junior High?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (January, 1945), 53-56.

Draws from a study made in the Aptos Junior High School, San Francisco, on the amount of time spent by children on their home study.

45. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. *The Improvement of Study Habits and Skills*. Educational Records Bulletin No. 41. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1944. Pp. 38.

Presents methods of gathering information on study habits and skills, procedures for improving study, an outline for a case study, and a list of workbooks and guides for teachers.

46. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Some Results of an Experimental Survey of the Study Habits of Independent-School Pupils," *1944 Fall Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies*, pp. 40-49. Educational Records Bulletin No. 42. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1945.

Sets forth results of a survey of the study habits of independent-school pupils by use of a questionnaire consisting of eighty-five items, in the 1944 fall testing program of the Educational Records Bureau.

47. TYLER, RALPH W. "What the Schools Can Learn from the Training Programs of the Armed Forces," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (May, 1945), 495-502.

Thoughtful observations by one who has had much firsthand contact with training programs of the armed forces.

48. WOELFEL, NORMAN, and TYLER, I. KEITH (editors). *Radio and the School*. Prepared by the Staff of the Evaluation of School Broadcasts Project. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1945. Pp. x+358.

This work is one of the Radio in Education Series growing out of the Evaluation of School Broadcasts Project. Its subtitle is "A Guidebook for Teachers and Administrators," and its scope and content are admirably designed for a manual in the area.

49. WOELFEL, NORMAN, and WILES, KIMBALL. "How Teachers Use School Broadcasts," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXIII (December 13, 1944), 227-32, 248.

Results of a project in which twenty teachers in four states, during the school year 1938-39, made "detailed reports of the utilization practices which they considered most successful with their classes" when using radio broadcasts.

50. WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE; DEGGITT, DOROTHY; and REID, SEERLEY. *Basic Study Skills: Finding, Evaluating, and Using Information*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1945. Pp. x+182.

A handbook for students for self-instruction on how to find, understand, judge, organize, and present information and share in class

and other educative activities and examinations.

MEASUREMENT³

51. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Individual Evaluation," *New Directions for Measurement and Guidance*, pp. 16-34. A Symposium Sponsored by the Committee on Measurement and Guidance. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series I—Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 20. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. A cogent discussion of the bearing and usefulness of instruments of measurement on evaluation of the individual student.

³ See also Items 568 (Wrightstone), 554 (Feingold), 591 (Harshman), in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1945, number of the *School Review*.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

AN APPRAISAL OF THE PUBLIC-OPINION POLLS.—The announcement of the results of a public-opinion survey conducted by any one of the reputable agencies engaged in the study of opinion trends is received as news by American readers, perhaps commonly enough without much concern for the subject on which prevailing opinion is attested. An inquiry is now being made with the view of ascertaining the degree of confidence of informed observers in the methods and social values of the opinion survey as it is used in different countries. The first report¹ of the results of this inquiry relates only to the views expressed by students of public opinion in the United States. Subsequent reports will deal in similar manner with opinion polls as conducted in England, Canada, Mexico, Sweden, France, and other countries where there are institutes of public opinion.

The report is based on returns from questionnaires addressed to persons known for their special interest in problems of public-opinion measurement. These include specialists in public-opinion research, journalists and publishers, sociologists, psychologists, political scientists, economists, historians, statisticians, government officials, and heads of cultural and social organizations. In addition to the brief answers to specific questions submitted, many of the respondents presented supplementary commentaries on various aspects of the opinion poll. A section of the present report is devoted to unitary quotations from these commentaries. Responses

were received in greatest number from social scientists and journalists.

The leading question of the inquiry relates to validity and usefulness of the opinion survey as now designed and conducted in this country. The statistical summary of the replies indicates that 56.1 per cent of these observers believe that the methods employed in testing public opinion are scientific, while 14.9 per cent do not so regard them. It is not without significance, of course, that 22.9 per cent characterize the procedure of opinion measurement as "not yet" scientific. It is interesting to note that scientists and journalists, for example, differ somewhat inconsistently in their appraisals of procedures employed and in their views of the usefulness of the survey. While 57.4 per cent of the scientists and only 50.0 per cent of the journalists consider opinion-poll methods scientific, 72.5 per cent of the journalists and 69.3 per cent of the scientists believe that the survey can be considered an important factor in scientific research.

The inquiry covers other significant aspects of public-opinion measurement, such as its role in a democratic society, its influence on public opinion, its values for the sciences and the professions, and certain problems related to the management and financing of opinion surveys. Although the limitations of a questionnaire investigation must be recognized in any interpretation of the significance of the report under consideration, it does appear that the estimates reported have been derived from persons whose interests and competence furnish as reliable guidance as might be obtained by any means in the present stage of the study of opinion trends. Educators will be interested in the facts and

¹ Laszlo Radvanyi, *Public Opinion Measurement. Problems and Results of Public Opinion Research*, Vol. I. Mexico, D.F., Mexico: Instituto Científico de la Opinión Pública Mexicana, 1945. Pp. 88. \$1.00.

comments presented in the report, particularly in relation to the growing emphasis on democratic procedures in American education.

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LITERATURE AND LAUGHTER.—In the belief that the humor in American literature is not appropriately represented in the English curriculum of the secondary schools, the authors of a recently published textbook¹ provide a selection of the writings of American humorists, together with interpretative commentaries designed to emphasize the educational and social values of humor as one of the outstanding folkways of all Americans. It is the view of the authors that laughter should be regarded as a natural "activity" of the classroom and that the infectious quality of humor in literature may be utilized to stimulate interest in reading on the part of many pupils who are not effectively motivated by other teaching procedures. The further suggestion is offered that proper guidance of youth in the recognition of the role of humor in the cultural progress of the nation may well be expected to establish criteria by which "taste in humor may be improved or created" (p. v.).

The introductory chapter includes an interesting review of the various attempts to explain why people laugh, a list of twelve categories under which different forms of humor are classified, a discussion of humor in pictures and in pantomime, and brief mention of American women who have contributed notably to humorous composition. Chapter i undertakes to characterize the sense of humor that is uniquely American and uses as illustrations brief selections from the writings of Oliver Wendell Holmes, the lectures of "Josh Billings," and the stories of Abraham Lincoln. In chapter ii the reader is introduced to the humor in the writings of

such famous persons as Benjamin Franklin, Washington Irving, James Russell Lowell, William Cullen Bryant, Henry Ward Beecher, and others whose contributions to American literature are not generally classified as humor. Chapter iii consists of six selections from Mark Twain, who is referred to as our greatest American humorist. Both early and more recent poets are represented in the selection of "laughing verses" included in chapter iv, and chapter v presents comic tales, folk tales, and plays. Representative humorists of the modern period, whose contributions appear in chapter vi, include Robert Benchley, Frank Sullivan, Cornelia Otis Skinner, Nunnally Johnson, and H. J. Phillips.

Following the anthology, a section of twenty pages provides lists of exercises and suggestions for class discussion. These teaching aids are grouped under headings representative of different forms and types of humor, such as exaggeration for fun, pure play for its own sake, recollections of youth, and humor as wisdom. These are designed to help the pupils understand the significance of humor in American life and to guide them in their interpretation of different forms of humor. For example, one exercise reads: "You dislike a liar. Do you feel the same toward a teller of tall tales? Why?"

Teachers of American literature will find many uses for *Humor of America* in their attempts to develop among pupils appreciation of the recreational values of reading and to improve their pupils' understanding of the cultural values of different forms of literary production.

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ENGLISH EXPRESSION AND VOCATIONAL INTERESTS.—Secondary schools endeavor in many ways to relate school subjects to various life-situations in which the knowledge and the skills acquired by students may be

¹ Max J. Herzberg and Leon Mones, *Humor of America*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1945. Pp. xii+418. \$1.60.

used to advantage. As an aid to such functional learning the authors of a textbook¹ in English expression have organized the course so as to relate the study of composition to the learner's vocational interests.

This volume is arranged in three sections dealing with oral and written composition, spelling, and grammar. Throughout Part I the content is vividly related to student interest in vocational guidance, the securing of a job, and correct attitudes toward life. English is presented as a key to successful employment. Unit VI, "English on the Job," discusses the use of oral and written English in effective talking and writing. Unit VII emphasizes the value of English in personality development. This part of the volume ends with a brief discussion of the importance of skills, such as the use of the dictionary and the library.

Part II is devoted to drill on two hundred spelling words, many of which, though difficult, are frequently used in business. Diagnostic and mastery tests are given several days apart. Words for mastery are so spaced that writing in the correct letters completes the word. A presentation of English grammar comprises Part III, which includes the study of verbs and several other parts of speech, punctuation, and common errors. The inductive method is used here, for the authors feel that the supplying of missing words presents a stronger challenge to the student than do other methods.

In the unit "Getting the Job," class discussion leads to the written application for work, in which the need of good English is emphasized. The importance of oral skill is stressed in the discussion of the interview. The spelling of difficult words and the application of correct grammar are covered in the later sections of the book. Unit V in Part I presents longer compositions for more advanced students. In the section on grammar a great deal of emphasis is given to verbs—

recognizing verbs and tenses, usage, and agreement. Adjectives, pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions are the subjects of other units. Incomplete and run-on sentences and double negatives are some of the common errors discussed.

Throughout this book, and more frequently in the grammar section, humorous yet well-pointed pen sketches are used effectively to illustrate crucial language principles. This volume would be useful in terminal classes of the high school, where an elementary knowledge of English is required. Individuals who have been out of school for some time and who wish to improve their practical use of English would also find this book of value.

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HOW TEACHERS LEARN THEIR PUPILS.—

H. C. Morrison was fond of saying that a teacher must learn his pupils before he can teach them. A recent report² tells how this result is to be accomplished. The book can be best categorized as educational psychology. However, it differs from most writings in this field in that it is devoted to setting forth the reactions of teachers over a three-year period in their attempts to understand their pupils. In the Preface Daniel A. Prescott tells us that the book is not about children but about teachers. Such it may be, but anyone who reads the book thoughtfully will gain a better understanding of, and a greater respect for, children trying to cope with the problems of growing up.

Chapter i sets forth six categories of qualities characterizing teachers who understand children. The authors also briefly state a philosophy to support the six hy-

² *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. By the Staff of the Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel. Prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1945. Pp. xvi + 468. \$3.50.

¹ Jerome Carlin and Henry I. Christ, *English on the Job*. New York: Globe Book Co., Inc., 1944. Pp. xii + 436.

pothesized qualities of understanding teachers. The next nine chapters are devoted to descriptions of what teachers did as they sought to progress toward the characteristics of ideal teachers. The last three chapters deal with evaluations of the study. The authors emphatically contend that it was not help from the outside that was primarily responsible for the growth of the teachers in understanding pupils but, rather, what the teachers did for themselves. The study that produced the book is still under way. The implication is that what is being done in the locality of the study can be done elsewhere.

If any part of the book can be considered disappointing, it would be chapter v, in which the content does not fulfil the promise contained in the title, "Learning Some Explanatory Principles." No explanatory principles are set forth in the chapter. Instead, the teachers are merely told that the findings from a number of sciences make possible generalizations about how children grow and why they behave in certain ways. This is hardly more than making a Ulysses bow to science. The reader may properly raise the question whether or not biological principles, for instance, apply without modification to human education. There are those who contend that certain modifications are required and that it is the function of experts and teachers in the field of educational psychology to show how such modifications are to be made. It may be that we have here an illustration of a weakness that characterizes the present child-study program and perhaps also the child-study movement led by G. Stanley Hall a half-century ago.

In chapter xi the teachers set forth their own evaluation of the study. The testimonies given dazzle with such glow that the authors are led to warn the reader that, while the picture presented may sound too good to be true, no single teacher reported all the

desirable results and in no school did all the teachers profit equally.

Chapter xii tells how the program was conducted, what was undertaken, and what successes and failures were believed to have resulted. The authors in a forthright manner acknowledge some mistakes. They believe, however, that at the end they had no reason to change their original conviction that a direct study of individual children would help to make meaningful the scientific knowledge of human development and behavior which the teachers already had and that it would cause the teachers to feel a need for more knowledge.

In the last chapter, entitled "What Experience Has Taught Us," the authors open up a heavy barrage of charges against the conventional teacher-pupil relationships in the school. Ten counts against the schools are listed. The belief is expressed that the present courses for the training of teachers do not prepare them to make sound judgments about children. Twenty-four categories of inadequacies in the present preparation of teachers are mentioned and briefly discussed.

This book belongs on the "must" reading list of all in-service teachers who desire a better understanding of children and who wish for themselves a happier and more successful professional experience. It could also be used to advantage as a textbook in pre-service teacher training if the anecdotal records presented in the volume were supplemented by readings and lectures that would make available to the students the experimentally derived facts by means of which adequate principles to explain the anecdotally described behavior could be developed.

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